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ABSTRACT

Faculty development has become an increasingly prominent concept for a growing number of faculty and administrators in American colleges and universities. To bring about the significant improvements in instruction demanded by the new and difficult issues facing higher education in the 1970's, it is essential that a faculty development program be both comprehensive and based on a set of diverse, though related strategies. Our proposed approach to faculty development is based on the assumption that significant changes must take place at the three levels of attitude, process, and structure. This handbook, designed as a self-contained guide to faculty development, presents both theoretical guidelines and practical suggestions for actually doing faculty development. The first section presents a brief overview of faculty development. Next follow sections on instructional, organizational, and personal development. Each of these sections contains separate chapters on such issues as classroom observation and diagnosis, decision-making, and helping skills. Each chapter typically includes an introductory discussion followed by related instruments, handouts, and exercises. A final section suggests a number of ways colleges and universities can develop and sustain their own faculty development programs. (Author/KE)

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A HANDBOOK FOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

By William H. Bergquist and Steven R. Phillips

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Preface

In the opening of his book on *The University Teacher as Artist*, Joseph Axelrod compares the state of college and university faculty today to that of Daedalus and his son Icarus trapped in the Labyrinth of King Minos of Crete centuries ago. Just as Daedalus and his son could not escape the labyrinth by following its winding ways, neither can today's faculty member find the freedom he needs to teach effectively by following the ways of his own academic labyrinth. To escape, Daedalus had to craft wings to carry him out of his captivity. The faculty member of today must do the same; to be free he must turn his attention to the art and craft of teaching. We believe that faculty development can play an important part in that process.

Numerous suggestions have been made as to how the university teacher may become both an artist and a craftsman in his own classroom. For instance, in an article by Stephen K. Bailey titled "Helping Professors (and Therefore Students) to Grow" published in the May 28, 1974 issue of *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, a nearly exhaustive list of ways to change the condition of faculty in higher education is presented. One way to help faculty grow, Dr. Bailey writes, "might well be to gain faculty support and cooperation in reconsidering the existing system of faculty committees." Another is to suggest to faculty "the desirability of new mixes of pedagogic arrangements and . . . the imaginative employment of new educational technologies." Other ways of bringing about growth, Dr. Bailey suggests, might include the following:

> Faculty members can be given temporary load reductions to work on a new course or an important area of research.
>
> Modular travel grants can be awarded to improve faculty opportunities to move, during a short or long vacation, to another country or to another area of this country in order to refresh and update their knowledge about a particular course or part of an academic field.
>
> Mini-courses of one or two hours can be encouraged, enabling faculty members to try out new ideas in an experimental setting.
>
> The concept of the sabbatical can be reinstated and reinforced. . . .
>
> Colloquy and conference funds can be protected at all costs. . . .
>
> Teachers whose subject-matter has become obsolete can be retrained into cognate fields where demand is higher.
>
> Faculty members can be encouraged to work with the largely untapped market of adult learners. . . .
>
> Faculty members can refresh their spirits by using some of the time regained by devices suggested earlier for additional contact hours with individual students. . . .
>
> Temporary faculty exchanges can be worked out with other institutions, to give tired teachers a new perspective and challenge.

There are perhaps as many definitions of faculty development as there are proponents. It certainly includes all of the items on Dr. Bailey's list, as well as such approaches to educational change as self-paced instruction, curriculum revision, and departmental and divisional reorganization. Yet faculty development is more focused and, at the same time, broader than this. Essentially, we believe, it is primarily an attempt to improve the quality of the teaching taking place

in individual classrooms by focusing on the individual faculty member and the issues that confront him as a teacher, a person, and a member of an organization. Unless detailed and systematic attention is given by the faculty member to his methods, goals, values, attitudes, and constraints, little or no change will occur in the kind of teaching and learning that is actually taking place within our colleges and universities.

A Handbook for Faculty Development is designed to assist this approach to the improvement of teaching and learning by presenting both theoretical guidelines and practical suggestions for actually doing faculty development. The first section of this handbook presents a brief overview of faculty development. Next follow sections on instructional, organizational, and personal development; these form the heart of the book. Each of these sections contains separate chapters on such issues as classroom observation and diagnosis, decision-making, and helping skills. Each chapter typically includes an introductory discussion followed by related instruments, handouts, and exercises. A final section suggests a number of ways colleges and universities can develop and sustain their own faculty development programs.

This handbook has been designed as a self-contained guide to faculty development. Yet perhaps no single book can fully outline all of the multiple approaches to a comprehensive faculty development program. Consequently we hope that this will be but the first in a series of handbooks which will explore in greater detail specific components of faculty development. To assist us in this project, and to provide us with your responses to *A Handbook for Faculty Development,* we would be grateful if, after having gained some familiarity with the contents of this book, you would take a moment to complete and send off the evaluation sheet found at the back of the book. In this way we will be able to respond more fully to your needs for information about faculty development.

Many of the exercises included in this handbook are in what may be called the common domain of faculty development; where possible we have given proper references and citations. This handbook, however, is designed for use; handouts, exercises, instruments, and forms may be freely reproduced and duplicated. Any material, of course, may be developed or modified to meet the needs of particular situations or institutions. If, after a few years use, this book is in tatters, it will have served its purpose of helping to initiate and sustain the on-going process of faculty development.

Throughout this handbook we have used masculine pronouns in referring to the faculty member. This usage in no way implies a lack of awareness of or sympathy for the growing attempt by women to gain their rightful place both in colleges and universities and in society as a whole. Our intent here is not to slight this movement but simply to avoid stylistic awkwardness and elaborate circumlocutions.

It would be proper but perhaps impossible to acknowledge the part numerous workshop participants, consultants, and institutions have played in developing the concepts and exercises contained in this handbook. Special recognition, however, should be given to the faculty development program currently in progress at the College Center of the Finger Lakes and, in particular, to two of the original consultants to that program, John F. Noonan, Director, Center for Improving Teaching Effectiveness, Virginia Commonwealth University, and William Barber, Department of Psychology, Eastern Washington State College. Many of the ideas that were developed in that program in turn had their origin in the Center for Human and Organizational Research and Development at the University of Idaho and in the work of Fred Fosmire, Department of Psychology, University of Oregon, and John L. Wallen, P.O. Box 71, Neotsu, Oregon. Much of the material on instructional methodology has been kindly provided by Tony

Grasha, Institute for Research and Training in Higher Education, University of Cincinnati. Other acknowledgements can only be noted: our thanks go to Nancy Barber, Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education; Jack Gilligan, Tazewell County Mental Health Clinic, Pekin, Illinois; Wayne R. Hagar, University of Idaho; Elizabeth Hunter, Hunter College; Bonnie Buenger Larson, College Center of the Finger Lakes; Gerry Perkus, Hartwick College; and Harrie Stevens, Alfred University. Finally, we wish to express our thanks to the Shell Companies Foundation, Inc., for their support of this project.

Chapter One

*A Comprehensive Approach to Faculty Development**

Faculty development has become an increasingly prominent concept for a growing number of faculty and administrators in American colleges and universities. Institutions of higher education face the harsh realities of decreased funding, steady or declining enrollment, and limited faculty mobility, together with demands for accountability voiced by students, parents, and state and federal officials. Since the teaching enterprise is central to higher education, faculty in particular are being asked to reexamine their personal and professional attitudes toward classroom instruction and toward their relationships with their students. Many faculty are also being asked to consider training in new classroom procedures, as well as possible reorganizations of departmental structures and governance systems.

Over the past decade, numerous articles and books have been written about faculty development.[1] In addition, most college officials can point to the existence on their own campuses of one or more "faculty development" programs, ranging from new faculty orientations to one year sabbaticals, from student classroom evaluations to a center for instructional technology. In almost all instances, these efforts have reflected three basic propositions: (1) teaching is an important aspect of the college faculty member's professional role and hence should be highly valued, (2) teaching is frequently not a serious concern in the training of college faculty, and (3) teaching is often neglected in issues of promotion and tenure. Most faculty development programs take note of these three propositions by offering some activities which acknowledge the validity of the first, but which do little to overturn the second two.

A. Past Approaches to Faculty Development

The experience of the past twenty years provides few clues concerning how faculty development might best be conducted. Past approaches to improving teaching and learning—"change the curriculum," "get brighter students," "recruit new Ph.D.'s from the best graduate schools," "reduce the student/faculty ratio," "develop an instructional resources center," "establish a new governance system," "undertake a comprehensive self-study"—have, in isolation, fallen short of meeting the challenges posed by the dramatic changes taking place in higher education. This lack of past success is particularly disappointing when one considers the amount of money available to colleges and universities in the 1960's. Three of the most widely used past approaches to faculty development, the reduction of student/faculty ratios, the purchase of such costly new instructional technology as video tape systems, instructional computers, and learning machines, and the recruitment of new Ph.D's with supposedly fresh ideas, merit consideration in greater detail.

When confronted with a reduced student/faculty ratio, many faculty members will either continue to lecture as before or will respond with a seminar. In the first instance, the reduced

*Parts of this handbook originally appeared in an earlier form in an article by the authors titled "Components of an Effective Faculty Development Program" in *The Journal of Higher Education*, 46 (1975), 177-211; reprinted with the permission of the Ohio State University Press.

student/faculty ratio seems to have had little impact on the kind of teaching that is taking place; in the second instance, the new situation may create new problems. The effective seminar leader must be able to move a discussion without directing it; he must be able to bring rational processes to bear upon a conflict of ideas without prematurely dampening this conflict; he must be able to bring out the quiet members of a group without goading them. In short, seminar leadership requires some subtle skills in group dynamics, an area in which few faculty have had training.

This situation is at times compounded by the faculty member who, when confronted with fewer students, will assume that class preparation is that much less important and will therefore concentrate a greater amount of his energy on research and publication. Concerned teachers, on the other hand, may find that with a smaller class, they are able to spend more time with each student on a one-to-one basis. Yet, as in the case of seminar teaching, instruction on such a basis requires delicate interpersonal skills which many teachers lack.

While the student/teacher ratio may provide the opportunity for several types of instruction which are not possible with large classes, lowering that ratio obviously does not necessarily improve the quality of teaching. A teacher might benefit from training in small group dynamics and in one-to-one teaching; in addition, he should have an opportunity to discuss the significant changes that may occur in his relationships with students as a result of small classes. Finally, of course, the faculty member must be supported and rewarded for developing these new skills.

The second approach to faculty development used widely during the 1960's (and still revered at some institutions) involved the purchase of new instructional hardware. In the years following Sputnik, great emphasis was placed on the solution of educational problems through technology: we should be able to move students as well as rockets with our new powers. For a number of reasons the new instructional technologies have not fulfilled their promise in higher education. First, few academic institutions have the financial, artistic, or technical resources to produce educational programming that can compete with the products of commercial television or motion pictures. Students who have grown up as consumers of sight-on-sound rock concerts, commercial games from Monopoly to Diplomacy, and stereophonic tape decks must be forgiven if they find the technological efforts of many of their professors rather amateurish.

Second, many college teachers, either by their own lack of interest or by the default of their institutions, have developed little acquaintance with the potentials of instructional technology. On many campuses, the new audio-visual center is a source of pride to the administration and a must stop for visiting trustees. Unfortunately, the center may rarely be visited by either students or faculty. Finally, and perhaps most fundamentally, the introduction of instructional technology can have profound and even threatening implications for the faculty member. If the teacher views himself primarily as a dispenser of information, he may feel that his position is directly threatened by the new technology.

Faculty development has also meant bringing in new faculty—men and women with new ideas and fresh perspectives. Such people, it is hoped, will serve as catalysts and provocateurs, keeping their departments flexible and constantly changing. Two assumptions underlie this strategy: first, colleges will continue to grow and hence there will always be positions for new faculty, and second, these new faculty members will be sources of instructional innovation. The first of these two assumptions is short-sighted, as are most solutions in our society that are based on the assumption of continuous growth.[2] Most colleges and universities in the 1970's are confronted with the prospect of little or no growth in the size of their faculties. Since many faculty members are between thirty-five and fifty years of age, the probability of a significant influx of new facul-

ty in the next twenty years is very small. There will be few positions for new faculty and, given the tenuous job market, very few employed faculty members will be looking toward other campuses for employment.

But even if colleges and universities were not presented with the inevitable reality of little or no growth, they would soon have to face up to the fact that new faculty members are not necessarily, or even usually, a primary source of instructional innovation. In recent years, a large proportion of the faculty entering the college teaching profession have graduated from prestigious, research-oriented institutions. Coming from such an institution, the young faculty member is often an inexperienced teacher; moreover, his only teaching models in graduate school are likely to have been senior, research-oriented faculty. The young faculty member is almost by definition an individual who could satisfactorily adapt to a traditional academic setting. Since innovation in curriculum or course design often requires a certain amount of risk taking on the part of the innovator, it is unrealistic to expect a new faculty member, without tenure, informal power or influence, knowledge of organizational roles or norms, or even conditional peer acceptance, to take the innovative step. While there are certainly exceptions to this rule, the expectation must be that the newcomer will first "learn the ropes," and then innovate—if the innovative ideas haven't been lost in the process of learning organizational survival.

In the recent past, efforts at faculty development have been either largely cosmetic in nature or based, at least in part, on faulty assumptions about the way in which faculty, as well as students, learn, change, and grow. We are left with very few guidelines for new programs in faculty development, even though such programs appear to be essential ingredients in the educational reforms of the 1970's. The remainder of this chapter will briefly identify the three major components we believe are essential to an effective faculty development program; the following chapters of this handbook will then provide detailed suggestions for the implementation of these components.

B. A New Approach to Faculty Development

To bring about the significant improvements in instruction demanded by the new and difficult issues facing higher education in the 1970's, it is essential that a faculty development program be both comprehensive and based on a set of diverse, though related strategies. Our proposed approach to faculty development is based on the assumption that significant changes must take place at the three levels of attitude, process, and structure.[3] A change effort focusing on only one of these levels will rarely achieve success. In the case of faculty development, primary attention is usually given to the process of instruction, most often to instructional methods and technology and student evaluation of instruction. While these instructional issues are vital for the improvement of the quality of the institution's educational effort, they do not constitute the full range of activities involved in an effective faculty development program.

Frequently, when introduced to methods for improving college instruction, a faculty member will either turn away or adopt a stance of passive resistance. Central to this posture may be the attitude of the faculty member toward teaching. If he does not value teaching or does not perceive himself as being primarily a teacher, he will not spend time either improving his skills as a lecturer or a discussion leader or exploring alternate instructional methods and techniques. At the same time, he may be fearful of displaying his shortcomings as a teacher or may resist the values and philosophies of education that underlie many new methods or curricular proposals. Frequently, he has neither an articulated value system concerning teaching nor a coherent philosophy of education. The new method or proposal may inevitably find itself at odds with ill-

defined values or philosophies. An effective faculty development program, then, must deal with the attitudes of the faculty member, as well as with related values, philosophies, and self-perceptions.

On the other hand, even when the college teacher has had a chance to develop his own philosophy of education and has refined or embraced methods and technologies compatible with his more clearly articulated attitudes and values, he may encounter restrictions and barriers resulting from institutional, divisional, or departmental policies, norms, and procedures. He confronts, in other words, the structural constraints of the organization within which he operates. As is the case with personal attitudes, organizational structures can rapidly and thoroughly blunt the thrust of a faculty development program which neglects the structural dimension.

A comprehensive program of faculty development is consequently one which provides training for faculty in improved classroom performance, which assists the faculty member in developing a supportive environment within his academic organization, and which allows him to examine and reflect on his own personal values and attitudes as they influence his professional life. Instructional development, organizational development, and personal development thus become the essential components of any effective program of faculty development.

In the next chapter we will examine the relationship between teaching styles, learning styles, course content, and educational environment, for these are among the central elements in the process of teaching and learning. In the remaining chapters of this handbook, we will then consider in detail the issues of instructional, organizational, and personal development.

NOTES:

[1] See, for example, W. J. McKeachie, "Research on Teaching at College and University Level," in N. L. Gage, ed., *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1964), pp. 1118-1172; Calvin B. Lee, *Improving College Teaching* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1967); W. H. Morris, ed., *Effective College Teaching* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1970); Ohmer Milton, *Alternatives to the Traditional* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972); Kenneth E. Eble, *Professors as Teachers* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972); Joseph Axelrod, *The University Teacher as Artist* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973); and *Faculty Development in a Time of Retrenchment* (New Rochelle: *Change* Magazine, 1974).

[2] Donella H. Meadows, Dennis L. Meadows, Jorgan Randers, and William W. Behrens III, *The Limits to Growth* (Washington: Potomac Associates, 1972).

[3] Goodwin Watson, *Social Psychology: Issues and Insights* (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1966), Chapter Six.

Chapter Two

Instructional Development: An Overview

Faculty and students are involved in a complex process that often seems to defy description or analysis. Each faculty member adopts his own unique approach to teaching. In some cases, this approach reflects a specific philosophy of education. More frequently, however, faculty members embrace a general approach to teaching as a result of rather uncritical modeling of their own mentors or as a result of their perception of the criteria by which senior members of the department or college define the appropriateness of specific instructional roles. Whether adopted haphazardly or after some reflection, such an approach to teaching often fails to take into account two critical factors: first, the approach must be appropriate to the learning styles of the students taking the course, and, second, the approach must be compatible with both the content of the course and the educational environment in which the course is to take place. Thus, an effective faculty development program must take into account course content, the preferred teaching style of the faculty member, the preferred learning styles of the students, and the educational environment in which the course is held. Each of these four factors interacts with the others to help or hinder the amount of learning that will ultimately take place.

Compatibility among these four ingredients is as critical to effective education as are the skills, knowledge, and motivation of the teacher and students. The primary goals of any faculty development program should be to provide faculty members with the knowledge and tools that enable them to plan for and implement instructional approaches that are responsive to various learning, content, and environmental styles. In the following parts of this chapter we will first briefly review several categorizations associated with each of the four dimensions and then attempt to integrate them in a coherent and systematic fashion.[1]

A. Styles of Teaching

In recent years, with growing demands for accountability, increased attention has been given to defining the "good" teacher. Student evaluations are widely used, and systematic means have been developed for self and peer assessment (see Chapter Three). While these means of evaluation are appropriate and useful to a faculty development program they often fail to take into account the complexities and subtleties of the teaching-learning process.

One of the first attempts to categorize different styles of teaching was made by Joseph Adelson, who drew an analogy between primitive modes of healing and types of teaching:

> *The teacher as shaman:* Here the teacher's orientation is narcissistic. The public manner does not matter; this type of teacher is not necessarily vain or exhibitionistic; he may in fact appear to be withdrawn, diffident, even humble. Essentially however he keeps the audience's attention focused on himself. He invites us to observe the personality in its encounter with the subject matter. . . . When this orientation is combined with unusual gifts, we have a *charismatic* teacher, one of those outstanding and memorable personalities who seem more than life-size. The charismatic teacher is marked by power, energy and commitment. . . . In some

cases the narcissistic teacher's impression on us is strong but transient; he moves us, but the spell does not survive the moment. We admire him as we admire a great performer. . . .

The teacher as priest: The priestly healer claims his power not through personal endowment, but through his office: he is the agent of an omnipotent authority. Do we have a parallel to this in teaching? I would say it is the teacher who stresses not his personal virtues, but his membership in a powerful or admirable collectivity. . . . The narcissistic teacher to some degree stands apart from his discipline and seems to say: "I am valuable in myself." The priestly teacher says: "I am valuable for what I belong to. I represent and personify a collective identity." . . . One of the teacher's tasks is to help the student absorb the sense of the collective past and accept the common blueprint for the future. . . . One of the distinctive features of this mode of teaching is that both teacher and student may share a common model or group of models, either exalted contemporaries or Great Ancestors. . . . The educational process is in some degree an extended rite of passage; the teacher's role is to prepare the student for the trials he will endure, and to administer the tests that will initiate him.

The teacher as mystic healer: The mystic healer finds the source of illness in the patient's personality. He rids his patient of disease by helping him to correct an inner flaw or to realize a hidden strength. The analogy here—perhaps a remote one—is to the teacher I will term *altruistic*. He concentrates neither on himself, nor the subject-matter, nor the discipline, but on the student, saying: "I will help you become what you are." We may recall Michelangelo's approach to sculpture: looking at the raw block of marble, he tried to uncover the statue within it. So does the altruistic teacher regard his unformed student; this type of teacher keeps his own achievement and personality secondary; he works to help the student find what is best and most essential within himself. . . . [This] is a model-less approach to teaching; the teacher points neither to himself nor to some immediately visible figure, but chooses to work with his students' potential and toward an intrinsically abstract or remote ideal. . . . [This] mode of teaching demands great acumen, great sensitivity—the ability to vary one's attack according to the phase of teaching and to the student—now lenient, now stern, now encouraging, now critical.[2]

Adelson provides an intriguing and graphic portrayal of three different kinds of teaching; however, his description of the teacher as mystic healer, the one style he apparently values most highly, seems the least precise. Furthermore, this threefold categorization does not seem to have confronted the full complexity of the teaching process.

In more recent studies, Richard Mann has defined six different styles of teaching, all of which are potentially effective in certain instructional settings. These six are:

The teacher as expert: This aspect of the teacher role conjures up the disparity between teacher and student with respect to the knowledge, experience, and wisdom they can apply to the subject matter of the course. The teacher is the expert, at least within certain defined areas of knowledge. His presumed expertise underlies both his right to be there and the students' interest in taking the course.

The teacher as formal authority: Viewed from the perspective of the larger social structure within which the college classroom is located, the teacher is an agent not only of instruction but also of control and evaluation. He is responsible to a group of administrators and external agents who expect him to insure uniformity of

standards and a justifiable evaluation system based on merit when he presents his set of grades at the end of the course.

The teacher as socializing agent: . . . the students' goals typically reach far beyond a particular classroom or course. The teacher is usually a member of the community of scholars, accredited by a professional or academic discipline, and he is also a member of an institution that may be highly relevant to a student's occupational aspirations. The teacher resembles in some sense a gatekeeper to a vocational world. He serves as a representative of his field, and especially of the values, assumptions, and style of intellectual life that characterize his discipline. Frequently, it is he who does not pass a student to the next plateau or screening process, or he may do so with varying degrees of support and pleasure.

The teacher as facilitator: There are times in the teacher-student relationship when the teacher seems much less absorbed with his own expertise, his power, and his field than with the aspirations of the students. . . . By not assuming that he can specify what skills or goals they bring with them, he creates for himself the complex task of determining what individual students have come to do, what they seem able to do already, and what they might need help in doing better. . . . From this it follows that the typical activities of the teacher as facilitator may entail far more listening and questioning than lecturing and assigning.

The teacher as ego ideal: [Students] . . . use their teacher in the continuous process of formulating and approaching their ideals. It may only be some of the students some of the time, and the idealization may be limited to certain aspects of the teacher's total performance, but this process is an important part of the college classroom.

The teacher as person: The teacher as a person aims at engaging students in a mutually validating relationship. Ideally, both the student and teacher feel sufficient trust and freedom to share their ideas and personal reactions not only to the course material, but also to matters that may fall outside the usual definition of what is relevant in a classroom.[3]

A somewhat different taxonomy has been developed by Joseph Axelrod. These styles, or "prototypes" as he labels them, are first described in terms of two different modes of teaching:

Didactic modes: The teaching styles we classify under the didactic modes are designed to achieve objectives that are generally clear and relatively easy to formulate. These objectives include the mastery of a definite body of information or the acquisition of specific motor-kinetic skills or specific mathematical or verbal skills (in English as well as in other languages). The didactic modes thus stress either cognitive knowledge acquired primarily by memorization, or mastery of skills acquired primarily by repetition and practice.

Evocative modes: The basic difference between the didactic modes and the evocative modes is the method used in the learning process: the major means employed in the evocative modes are inquiry and discovery.[4]

Although Axelrod indicates that there are various styles of didactic teaching, he does not specifically describe them, for his primary focus is on the evocative modes.

As we have seen, each of the evocative modes focus on the process of inquiry and discovery. There are major differences, however, in the ways in which these processes take place, depending on the relative emphasis placed on the teacher, the learner, and the subject matter or

skill being taught. Axelrod identifies three different styles based on these relative emphases. "One of the major teaching prototypes focuses on subject matter," Axelrod writes,

> and it is therefore the other two elements—teachers and learners—that must undergo adjustment. Neither teachers nor learners are permitted to reshape the subject matter, except in quite minor ways. The subject matter is simply not expected to accommodate itself to them, no matter what their requirements or special conditions might be. Teachers who are subject-matter-oriented usually view with alarm any suggestion that the subject matter of a course ought to be changed.

The second teaching prototype focuses on the instructor himself:

> The instructor-centered teacher believes that the other two elements—students and subject matter—should accommodate themselves to him. He is, after all, the possessor of knowledge and a model for learners. . . . Students and subject matter remain important for the instructor-centered teacher, but *they* must be adjusted to fit what *he* is.

The third prototype focuses on the student:

> Student-centered professors argue that the teaching-learning process will not be effective if conditions require the student element to be vastly reshaped before the process can get started. Their view is that if the student is expected to accommodate himself to the other two elements in the educational transaction, if he is pushed into a shape other than his own, the whole educational process is endangered.

Finally, Axelrod identifies two different types of student-centered prototypes:

> One type of professor emphasizes the personal development of the student but limits the scope of his endeavor to the development of the student's mind. These professors follow the Student-as-mind Prototype. . . . The second type of student-centered professor emphasizes the personal development of the whole student—his entire personality and not just his mind. These professors follow the Student-as-person Prototype.[5]

In comparing the categorizations of Adelson, Mann, and Axelrod, several obvious similarities can be noted. All three authors identify some styles that focus primarily on the subject matter of the course. Adelson defines the "priestly" functions of some teachers, while Mann identifies the "expert" and "formal authority" in terms of their concern for subject matter. Axelrod views his didactic modes and the subject-centered evocative mode in a similar manner. All three authors also identify several styles that focus primarily on the student: Adelson's "mystic healer," Mann's "facilitator," and Axelrod's two student-centered modes.

The teacher-oriented styles of the three authors, however, are not fully compatible. Mann describes the teachers who serve as "socializing agents," "ego ideals," and "persons" in a way that seems teacher-oriented; however, the "socializing agent" in many ways resembles Axelrod's "student-as-mind" prototype, whereas teacher as "person" is certainly integral to the explorations by the students of their own personhood. Adelson's "shaman" and the teacher-centered style of Axelrod, on the other hand, do seem to be compatible. The differences that appear in the categorizations of Adelson and Axelrod, on the one hand, and Mann on the other, may reside not so much in their images of the teacher as in their assumptions about the impact which each type

of teacher has on his students. We must thus turn to the examination of student learning styles in order to gain a clearer perspective on the nature of various approaches to teaching.

B. Styles of Learning

Two different approaches have been taken to the characterization of learning styles. Richard Mann and his colleagues have identified styles on the basis of content analysis of tape recorded class interactions, as well as interviews and questionnaires. Tony Grasha and Sheryl Riechmann, on the other hand, based their stylistic categories on the Grasha-Riechmann Student Learning Style Questionnaires (Instruments Number One and Two), in addition to interviews and other questionnaires. Eight different learning "clusters" have been defined by Mann:

> *The compliant students:* [These students fit] perhaps better than any other the picture of the typical "good student" in the traditional classroom. Its members . . . seemed quite contented with their classes, their teachers, and themselves. They were consistently task-oriented, only rarely experiencing any of the kinds of emotions that might interfere with the pursuit of that task. Most of all, they took part in no rebellion and seemed to feel no inclination to do so. . . . They work because their parents expect them to . . . [and] because the teacher will grade them. . . . They tended to do the work they were supposed to do in the course, no more and no less, and they achieved at about the level one would expect given ability. . . . [A] kind of class that may upset them is one in which the teacher has, in their opinion, relinquished too much control. . . . The main concern of this group seems to be understanding the material. . . .
>
> *The anxious dependent students:* . . . this is a large cluster, and one which forms an important part of every teacher's experience with his students. Its members are somewhat angry on the inside, but mostly frightened on the outside, very dependent on the teacher for knowledge and support, and very anxious about being evaluated. Their anxiety keeps most of them from doing anything we might call work in the classroom. . . . One of the most pervasive issues in this group is the members' feeling of intellectual incompetence. . . . This feeling of incompetence, together in many cases with consistent external pressures, especially from parents, combine to make these students tremendously concerned about grades. . . .
>
> *The discouraged workers:* The members of this cluster tend to say often that they are dissatisfied with themselves. . . . When things go wrong for these people, they tend to blame themselves and not turn much hostility on other people. . . .
>
> *The independents:* They are significantly older than the other students. . . . An important sub-group of them is also especially intelligent. . . . They generally seem quite confident of themselves and are not often threatened by the teacher, the work, or the other students. They remain relatively independent while other students are confused or anxious or angry, looking at the material relatively objectively and working with it in creative ways. . . . While they tend to favor colleagueal relationships with the teacher, where teacher and student work together on intellectual tasks, they also want to keep teacher and student roles clearly distinct. . . .
>
> *The heroes:* [For these students], all of whom are males, classwork is inextricably tied to rebellion. Both are manifestations of a deep involvement with the teacher and the course work . . . [which] has for them certain implications which tend to lead them not only to very productive and creative work, but also, in the same class, to extreme hostility and resentment. . . . The feelings of superiority that are an important part of the identity of these students are accompanied by expres-

sions of contempt for ordinary or common people represented by most of their classmates. . . . The fear of becoming too close to others and the need to withdraw even while approaching, in combination with mistrust of authorities and the actual unwillingness of . . . [some] teachers to maintain purely personal and colleagueal relationships without exercise of their formal authority, leads these students to rebel in the classroom. . . .

The snipers: . . . the noninvolvement of this cluster seems to be related to a low level of self-esteem and general pessimism about the possibility of fruitful relationships with authority figures. The combination of low investment and high rebellion leads to a kind of sniping at the teacher from a distance. . . . There are many understandable reasons why this group could make teachers angry. They can be very hostile, but they rarely move toward the teacher, and they are elusive when the teacher wants to confront them directly on an issue. . . .

The attention seekers: [These students] tend to have a predominantly social rather than intellectual orientation. They are very concerned with their relationship with the teacher and other class members, especially in the sense of wanting to please them. One way in which they do this is by trying to seem attractive by frequently talking, showing off, bragging, and joking. . . . [Their] interest in people and their need to be accepted by people tends to overshadow their interest in the more cognitive aspects of work and inhibits their intellectual development. . . . It is very important to these students that the teacher be nurturant for they are sometimes quite dependent on him. They seem to feel somewhat uncomfortable if the teacher shows signs of leaving them to their own intellectual devices. . . .

The silent students: [These students] are characterized less by what they do in the classroom than by what they do *not* do. They do not participate verbally. . . . The predominant quality, whether male or female, is their tremendous sense of helplessness and vulnerability in relation to the teacher. . . . The males in this cluster are often angry and defensive and take a certain sort of malicious pride in having maintained their autonomy in a situation in which the teacher was clearly out to overwhelm them. . . . The females present themselves as "the good little girl who is seen but not heard."[6]

A different and perhaps less evaluative taxonomy has been developed by Tony Grasha and Sheryl Riechmann, who have defined six student learning styles based on students' attitudes toward learning, their views of teachers and peers, and their reactions to classroom procedures. These six styles are as follows:

Competitive: This response style is exhibited by the student who learns material in order to perform better than others in the class. He feels he must compete with other students in the class for the rewards of the classroom, such as grades or teacher's attention. He views the classroom as a win-lose situation, where he must always win.

Collaborative: This style is typical of the student who feels he can learn the most by sharing his ideas and talents. He cooperates with teachers and peers and likes to work with others. He sees the classroom as a place for social interaction as well as content learning.

Avoidant: This response style is typical of a student who is not interested in learning course content in the traditional classroom. He does not participate with students and teachers in the classroom. He is uninterested or overwhelmed by what goes on in classes.

Participant: This style is characteristic of the student who wants to learn course content and likes to go to class. He takes responsibility for getting the most out of class and participates with others when told to do so. He feels that he should take part in as much of the class related activity as possible, but he does little that is not part of the course outline.

Dependent: This style is characteristic of the student who shows little intellectual curiosity and who learns only what is required. He sees teacher and peers as sources of structure and support. He looks to authority figures for guidelines and wants to be told what to do.

Independent: This response style is characteristic of the student who likes to think for himself. He prefers to work on his own, but he will listen to the ideas of others in the classroom. He learns the content he feels is important and is confident in his learning abilities.[7]

In comparing Mann's and Grasha's categories, we find in both one or more styles that focus on the content of the course. Mann's "compliant" and Grasha's "participant" students tend to be oriented toward course content. The "compliant" student, however, seems to be responsive to the content-orientation of the teacher, whereas the "participant" student seems to be oriented toward content as a result of genuine interest in the subject matter. Other styles identified by Mann and Grasha reflect a clear orientation of the student toward the teacher and/or peers, rather than to content. Grasha's "dependent," "collaborative," and "competitive" students seem to be interpersonally oriented in the classroom, as are Mann's "anxious-dependent," "hero," "sniper," and "attention-seeking" students. The interpersonal relationships which these students manifest or desire, however, differ quite radically and require distinctly different responses from the teacher. Finally, the "independent" student has been identified by both Mann and Grasha. Presumably, this category embraces a wide variety of aspirations, motives, and educational preferences.

C. Styles of Instructional Content

The third element in the complex process of teaching and learning is the content of the course being offered; content obviously can not be ignored for the sake of teaching and learning styles. At times, an instructor may find that the content of his course is both compatible with his own preferred teaching style and the preferred learning styles of most of his students. At other times, however, he may be faced with the necessity of teaching a certain type of course content which is incompatible with either his own teaching style or with his students' learning styles. In such cases, hard decisions must be made by the faculty member as he plans his course. "Can the content of the course be modified in any way to make it more compatible with the way I like to teach?" "Do I need to change or extend my teaching style for this particular course?" "Can my students be encouraged to try out other ways of learning than those they are used to?" In making these decisions it would perhaps be useful for the instructor to consider the content of his course in terms of three relatively independent categories:

Cognitively oriented content: This kind of content is primarily related to the acquisition of new information or the reorganization of existing information. Cognitive content is usually conveyed by means of lecture, classroom discussion, reading, or various technological means such as television, audio-tutorial, and programmed texts. Cognitive acquisition is usually measured by means of objective tests or highly structured interviews.

Skills-oriented content: Courses with this content orientation are concerned with effective performance of specific tasks. Skills-oriented content is usually conveyed by means of lecturing, modeling, practice, and immediate feedback. The acquisition of these skills can be rather easily assessed by means of performance tests which measure speed, accuracy, endurance, and so forth.

Affectively oriented content: This content is related to an increased understanding of and, in some instances, control over the subjective aspects of one's personal life (such as emotions, attitudes, values, self-images, and fantasies). Affective content is usually conveyed by means of personal experiences that are either spontaneous, as in some field work, or planned, as in simulations and certain kinds of workshops. The acquisition of affective content is difficult to measure, though it is usually assessed through more or less subjective means, such as interviews, diaries, and essay examinations.

Most college classrooms tend to be primarily oriented toward cognitive learning, though with the increasing emphasis on both instructional accountability and vocational-training, skills training has become more and more respectable in higher education. Affective learning, on the other hand, has usually been de-emphasized in American colleges and universities. Though this threefold categorization is somewhat simplistic, it may nevertheless serve as a useful, preliminary tool for conceptualizing the relationship between content, teaching, and learning.

The success with which specific course content is presented depends at least in part on the styles of teaching and learning involved. A teacher who views himself as an "expert" or "formal authority" and who plays a "didactic" or a subject-matter oriented evocative role, will probably feel comfortable with cognitive learning goals. If he knows his subject matter and is skillful at using such methods as lecturing and small group discussions and such evaluation devices as multiple-choice and short-answer tests, this college teacher will probably be successful at bringing about cognitive learning in his classes, provided his students are compliant, participative, or competitive. If, on the other hand, students embrace a predominantly independent style, or if the professor also wishes to encourage affective learning, then tension may develop between the teacher and his students; alternate teaching methods and nontraditional modes of evaluation may also be a source of conflict.

A classic example of incompatibility in content, as related to both the learning goals and learning styles of the students, is witnessed in the following 1744 document. It was written by the Indians of the Six Nations at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, who were invited to send students to William and Mary College.

> We know that you highly esteem the kind of learning taught in those Colleges, and that the Maintenance of our young Men, while with you, would be very expensive to you. We are convinced, that you mean to do us Good by your Proposal; and we thank you heartily. But you, who are wise must know that different Nations have different Conceptions of things, and you will therefore not take it amiss, if our Ideas of this kind of Education happen not to be the same as yours.
> We have had some Experience of it. Several of our young People were formerly brought up at the Colleges of the Northern Provinces: they were instructed in all your Sciences; but, when they came back to us, they were bad Runners, ignorant of every means of living in the woods . . . neither fit for Hunters, Warriors, nor Counselors, they were totally good for nothing.
> We are, however, not the less oblig'd by your kind Offer, tho' we decline accepting it; and, to show our grateful Sense of it, if the Gentlemen of Virginia will send us

a Dozen of their Sons, we will take Care of their Education, instruct them in all we know, and make Men of them.[8]

D. Styles of Educational Environment

Even when content is compatible with teaching and learning styles, the environment in which the educational process takes place may be critical. Affective learning, for instance, usually does not easily occur in a traditional classroom, both because of the expectations held by teachers and students in this situation and because of the constraints which the classroom usually places on many of the alternate teaching methods that are most appropriate to affective learning. For this reason, we must examine not only the content variable *inherent* in the educational process, but also the variable that is *external* to that process, the educational environment.

Though environments have generally been categorized as either "traditional" (classroom) or "nontraditional" (outside the classroom), this division is becoming increasingly inadequate as the number and variety of "nontraditional" environments increase and as college professors design the instructional environments of the classroom in new ways. We offer a somewhat more sophisticated yet preliminary classification of six educational environments:

Teacher-oriented environments: classroom setting; seats facing toward the front; teacher located behind or beside a table or lecturn; seats may be permanently situated, with small arm tables.

Automated Environments: use of instructional technologies; audio-tutorial instruction; programmed instruction; computer-assisted instruction; educational television, and so forth.

Interaction-oriented environments: seminar settings; students and teacher face each other; circular arrangement of chairs or chairs located around table; informal setting; comfortable chairs; large, open, multi-use space in a collegiate setting.

Student-oriented environments: independent studies; contract learning; student works on his own in a college or university; student makes use of library, laboratory, museum, private room, lounge, and so forth.

Sheltered experience-oriented environments: creation of simulated experiences such as games, role plays, and instructional simulations; laboratory experiences; apprenticeships; practicum experiences; workshops.

Experience-oriented environments: field experiences; on-the-job experience; work-study programs; internships; academic credit for life experiences.

Although it may be possible to identify other environments or combinations, these six will hopefully serve as a useful framework for further discussion. The task at this point is to suggest some relationships between the four factors under consideration in this chapter: faculty teaching styles, student learning styles, course content, and educational environment

E. Teaching, Learning, Content, and the Environment

The variety of interactions possible between teaching, learning, content, and the environment would seem to be almost unlimited. Faculty are often faced in the course of a single semester with a number of different learning styles, contents, and environments; each faculty member often has more than one preferred teaching style. Yet perhaps just because these interactions are so numerous and varied, it may be worthwhile to suggest a systematic way of looking

at the complexity that is college and university teaching. The following outline, based in part on the threefold distinction suggested by Axelrod, is tentative at best but hopefully can help faculty begin to examine in an ordered way the complex task of teaching and learning.

We would suggest, then, that there are essentially three basic configurations of teacher, student, content, and environment:

Content-centered teaching and learning: The primary task in this mode of teaching and learning is to cover the material of a course or discipline in a coherent and systematic manner. The content of various courses within a discipline is usually kept discrete, and the organization of the discipline is ordered in generally the same way in most colleges and universities. The teacher is viewed as expert, formal authority, or "priest"; the most compatible students are those who exhibit competitive or dependent learning styles. The goals of courses with this orientation are usually set by the demands of the material; evaluation is usually objective and performance is measured against the material. Lectures and formal discussions are the usual method of instruction. The content of these courses is primarily cognitively and/or skills oriented, and the environment will probably either be oriented toward the teacher as a source of information or will be automated.

Instructor-centered teaching and learning: In this mode of teaching and learning, attention is most often focused on the instructor, not primarily as a source of information, but as a model of the way one should approach a particular field or discipline. The best ways of understanding and handling the concepts of the course are demonstrated by the instructor's own behavior and personality. The teacher is usually viewed as a socializing agent or ego ideal; he is a "shaman" and performer; when particularly talented, he can be very charismatic. He may make dramatic use of the lecture format, while discussion sessions tend to be oriented toward him. Students who are highly dependent will rather non-critically embrace this mode; participant students will approve of this mode if the instructor appears to be competent; the discouraged worker may find this mode comfortable if the instructor pays some attention to him. Both the goals and standards of evaluation are usually set by the teacher, often in a subjective manner. The content of these courses, though often cognitively oriented, may have an important affective component. The environment may be either teacher- or interaction-oriented, with the focus in the latter case clearly on the teacher.

Student-centered teaching and learning: This kind of teaching and learning emphasizes the intellectual training and/or personal growth of the students. The teacher acts primarily as a facilitator and as a person in relationship to students who are collaborative or independent. This mode is also appropriate for the avoidant student if he gives the experience a chance. Rather heavy emphasis is often given in this mode to establishing learning contracts between teacher and student which enable them to define specific learning goals, resources, and means of evaluation which are uniquely tailored for each student. The teaching methods most frequently used are student run discussions, group discussions, role plays, simulations, field work, and independent study. The content here will be either cognitively or affective oriented (or both), and the environments may be interaction-oriented, student-oriented, sheltered experience-oriented, or experience-oriented.

There is obviously no rigid separation between these three categories, as one would expect in dealing with the dynamic complexity of college teaching. Yet this organization may be useful

to those faculty who wish to explore in greater detail the interactions between teaching, learning, content, and environment.

F. Instructional Development

Effective faculty development programs should contain elements which have immediate application to the primary function of the faculty member, instruction in the classroom. In the remaining chapters of this, the largest section of the handbook, we have provided some suggestions and resources for use in the development of instructional skills. We have specifically focused on four components of instructional development: evaluation, diagnosis, classroom training, and methods and technologies of instruction.

NOTES:

[1] A word may be appropriate at this point about the process of categorization, for some resistance to the models presented in this chapter at times takes place not from disagreements about specific categories but from objections to the very process itself. Two basic objections are sometimes voiced: first, these categories are arbitrary and dehumanizing; since they represent abstractions rather than specific faculty members they are essentially worthless; and, second, these categories are highly evaluative; their authors imply, if not explicitly state, that certain styles are better than others. The categorizations thus represent nothing more than a thinly veiled attempt by the author to state his preferences for specific types of instruction.

These objections have been voiced by faculty and administrators who are sincerely concerned about faculty development and have some justification. Any categorization of teaching and learning certainly can lead to a simplistic conception of the complexity of the classroom. By introducing content and environment as inevitable and necessary variables in the relationship between students and teachers, we have at least acknowledged this. Furthermore, as we indicate on several occasions in this chapter, the categorizations should be used to spark analysis and discussion rather than as a vehicle to label and thereby dismiss individual faculty members.

The question of evaluation is even more critical. All of the models described in this chapter, perhaps even our own, seem to have a bias built into them: student-centered teaching is good, independent students are good, content that touches on the affective domain is good; nontraditional environments are good. While these statements may hold true for the authors we cite, as well as for ourselves, they are not central to the real purpose of the categorizations, which is to examine the compatibility among the major variables in the educational process. While each of us may want to teach in a certain way or may prefer to work with a certain type of student, content, or environment, optimal conditions are not always present. The challenge inherent in the design of courses which are responsive to multiple and often incompatible variables can more than compensate for the frustrations that are associated with the recognition of these incompatibilities.

To the extent that faculty members are presented with a model that is heavily evaluative, and to the extent that faculty members find themselves labeled and placed in categories that are less positive than others, one can be certain that they will resist any categorization or will use it in a destructive manner. However, if a model is presented in an objective and non-evaluative manner, it can provide faculty with useful conceptual tools for examining and analyzing the dynamics of their own courses and can show them a number of different options for growth. In this light, the categories discussed in this chapter will be invaluable tools for the improvement of college teaching.

[2] Joseph Adelson, "The Teacher as Model," *The American Scholar*, 30 (1961), 395-398, 400-401; this article is reprinted in Nevitt Sanford, ed., *The American College* (New York: Wiley, 1962), pp. 396-417.

[3] This description of Mann's categories is taken from the University of Michigan's *Memo to the Faculty*, Number 45 (August, 1971), p. 2; for a fuller description of these teaching roles, see Richard Mann and others, *The College Classroom: Conflict, Change, and Learning* (New York: Wiley, 1970), particularly pp. 1-19. These teaching styles are also discussed in Wilbert J. McKeachie, *Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College Teacher* (Lexington, Mass.: Heath, 1969), pp. 38-52.

[4] Joseph Axelrod, *The University Teacher as Artist* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973), pp. 10, 12.

[5] Axelrod, pp. 12-14.

[6] This description of student roles is taken from the University of Michigan's *Memo to the Faculty*, Number 45 (August, 1971), pp. 3-4; for a more extensive discussion, see Mann, *The College Classroom: Conflict, Change, and Learning*, pp. 144-223.

[7] For a fuller discussion of these learning styles, see Anthony F. Grasha, "Observations on Relating Teaching Goals to Student Response Styles and Classroom Methods," *American Psychologist*, 27 (1972), 144-147, and Sheryl Riechmann and Tony Grasha, "A Rational Approach to Developing and Assessing the Construct Validity of a Student Learning Style Scales Instrument," *The Journal of Psychology*, 87 (1974), 213-223.

[8] T. C. McLuhan, ed., *Touch the Earth* (New York: Pocket Books, 1972), p. 57.

EXERCISE NUMBER ONE

TITLE: Faculty Teaching Styles

SOURCE: John F. Noonan, Virginia Commonwealth University

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Perhaps the most useful taxonomy of teaching styles is that developed by Richard Mann, for it appears less value laden and more descriptive than the categories developed by other authors. It also seems to be one that meets with least resistance from faculty. This exercise is designed to allow the participants to indicate the extent to which their teaching conforms to each of Mann's six categories and to provide them with information on how other faculty view their description of themselves as teachers.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: It is usually helpful to begin an exercise on either teaching or learning styles with some discussion of the limitations of any attempt at categorization. Like most such efforts, Mann's does not attempt to force faculty into any single role but rather to provide them with an opportunity to explore their own teaching styles in a systematic manner.

To begin the exercise, the leader asks the participants to form pairs, preferably containing faculty members who know little or nothing about the teaching style of the other. Each participant receives a copy of the "Teaching Typology" and is asked to circle the number on each scale that indicates the extent to which that particular style is characteristic of his own teaching. Thus, if a participant saw himself very much as an "Expert," he would circle a four or a five; if he felt that this role was quite unlike his teaching, he would circle a one or a two. Each participant does this for each of the six styles. During this phase of the exercise, the participants must be encouraged not to show their self-ratings to their partners.

After each participant has completed his ratings—and again without showing them to his partner—the members of each pair are asked to interview each other about their teaching (if the participants have had little experience with interviewing, the leader might wish to list a few sample questions to help them get started). The purpose of the interview is to allow the person doing the interview to estimate how his partner rated himself. The interviewer does this by making a check on his own sheet to indicate how he thinks his partner completed his own self-analysis.

After each partner has interviewed and rated the other (each interview should last at least twenty minutes), the two partners share their ratings of themselves and each other. Particular discrepancies between ratings by one's self and one's partner should be carefully examined. The exercise may conclude with a general discussion of teaching styles.

Variations:

1. Since the terms "Expert," "Facilitator," and so forth do have some evaluative overtones, the leader may wish to modify a "Teaching Typology" to read "Style A," "Style B," and so on. After the participants have completed and shared their ratings, the exercise may end with (or a further discussion begun by) indicating Mann's terms to the participants.

2. Since the teaching styles of most faculty are a composite of many of these six styles, participants may be asked to write a self-description by picking out and combining various words, phrases, and sentences from a "Teaching Typology," which they may then share with each other in small groups.
3. A role play may be developed with each player representing one of Mann's six styles. They may then each make a short presentation to the other participants or the six may carry on a discussion about teaching philosophies under the observation of the other participants. At the conclusion of the role play the non-role players may be asked to identify which role each of the players was demonstrating.

TEACHING TYPOLOGY

EXPERT: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 (Unlike me / Like me)

I see myself as a subject-matter expert, and I define my classroom role largely as an information-giver. My professional background has made me more knowledgeable in certain areas than most other people—there is no point in denying this—and I think students sign up for my courses because they want to learn as much as they can from me.

FORMAL AUTHORITY: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 (Unlike me / Like me)

I expect work to be handed in on time and I insist that it be in the correct form. I do not take kindly to latecomers, nor do I permit students to miss classes without a valid reason. What about grading? We are evaluated all our lives in whatever we are doing, so students might as well get used to that at college. I like to be in control when I am teaching.

SOCIALIZING AGENT: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 (Unlike me / Like me)

Many of my students have gone on to graduate school in my discipline, and whenever my best students do that I feel great satisfaction. I am continually on the alert for promising graduate students. You might even say I see myself as a gatekeeper, a recruiter for my field.

FACILITATOR: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 (Unlike me / Like me)

I think my job is to respond to the learning goals of the students, even where their goals and mine are quite different. I do not feel comfortable telling students what they are supposed to learn. I believe in taking students on their own terms, so I do a lot of listening and questioning. I want to enable them to learn what they think is worth learning.

EGO IDEAL: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 (Unlike me / Like me)

Students look up to me, not so much as a discipline expert but as a model for living. I suppose it has something to do with my energy and enthusiasm for what I am doing. Students may not remember everything I have said, but when the course is over, I think they have been inspired to find something that is as liberating and exciting for them as my work is for me. I suppose they view me as charismatic.

PERSON: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 (Unlike me / Like me)

I learn as much from my students as they learn from me. Teaching is a dynamic social system, and students and faculty should learn from each other. I teach because I value personal growth, my own as well as theirs. I try to create an atmosphere of trust and openness in my courses, and I have no qualms talking about my own feelings and experiences, even the non-academic ones. I want students to know I exist beyond the classroom as well as in it.

EXERCISE NUMBER TWO

TITLE: Card Exchange

SOURCE: Developed by Steven R. Phillips and William H. Bergquist from a similar NTL exercise.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This exercise helps workshop participants clarify and articulate their assumptions about teaching and learning and, in so doing, develop for themselves a profile of their own teaching style. "Card Exchange" is used most effectively early in a workshop, perhaps as a preparation for a more formal introduction of Richard Mann's conceptualization of faculty teaching styles.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This exercise takes between one and two hours and requires at least twelve faculty participants. Before the exercise begins, the statements which follow these instructions should be typed or written on separate three by five index cards. Since each participant will receive six cards, the number of cards needed will be six times the number of participants involved. Two or more cards containing the same statement may be needed.

The exercise is conducted in the following steps:

1. Introduce the exercise with a few remarks about the validity of different teaching styles; indicate that the purpose of this exercise is to help each participant identify his own style.
2. Randomly distribute six cards to each participant. Indicate that they will probably agree with some of the statements but not with others. The task at this point is to get rid of those cards containing statements each participant does not agree with by trading them with other participants for ones containing statements with which they are more in agreement. At the end of this first trading period (about fifteen or twenty minutes) each participant should have six cards he is as comfortable with as possible (here and throughout the exercise, duplicates may be held).
3. Indicate to the participants that they are now to make a merger with one other person by finding someone else whose cards they agree with. If necessary, one card from each member's six may be discarded if it is blocking an otherwise successful merger. At the end of this trading period, participants should be in pairs with at least ten cards between them.
4. Next, each pair is to merge with another pair whose cards they can agree with. Again, one card from each pair may be dropped if necessary. At the end of this trading period, participants should be in groups of four with at least eighteen common cards. (Some pairs may not be able to make this merger; do not force the issue but rather allow them to continue on with the final steps of the exercise as a pair.)
5. Ask each of the groups to decide which four of their statements are most important to them and which four are least important. Each group should write out these statements on separate sheets of newsprint.

6. Draw all the participants back together and ask each group to explain its list to the others. These explanations can then serve to generate a discussion about many of the assumptions the participants have made about the nature of teaching and learning.

Although this exercise can be used as an "ice-breaker" in one of the first sessions of a workshop, it is important to provide the participants with ample time for explanation and discussion. A great deal of effort goes into the final lists and unless faculty have a chance to talk about and even defend them, the exercise will produce only frustration.

CARD EXCHANGE

Most of what students learn, they learn on their own.

Students should be primarily concerned with fellow students' reactions to their work in the classroom.

An important part of classes is to learn to get along with other people.

Students can learn more by following a detailed, clearly defined instructional program than by working by themselves.

Students can learn more by working on their own than by working with other students.

I think students have to be able to work independently and profit from past experiences to do well in school.

Students should actively participate, as "apprentice-learners," in all aspects of course planning and implementation.

I think that grades are usually inappropriate in an effective learning environment.

Most students seem to enjoy working in a course that has clearly defined learning objectives and evaluative criteria.

In their work outside the classroom, students should give top priority to whatever topics are of particular concern to them at the moment, having been stimulated by the student's daily experiences either in or outside the classroom.

I favor the use of classroom methods which maximize the student's independence to learn from his own experiences.

Most of what students learn, they learn from other students.

Students should be primarily concerned with getting good grades.

An important part of classes is to learn how to study in an independent manner.

An instructor is usually able to determine what the important content issues are in a course.

I feel that a teacher should not usually be contradicted by a student in the classroom.

I think that an exciting interchange between students and the instructor often provides ideas about content that are better than those in a textbook.

In order for students to get the most out of a class, they must be aware of the primary concerns and biases of the instructor.

I do not think that students should be given high grades unless they have clearly earned them.

I think that course content should be presented by a lecturer before the student works on the content either by himself or in a discussion group.

A student's coursework should help him become an independent thinker.

Most of what students learn, they learn from their teachers.

A teacher who makes students do things they don't want to do is not doing his job well.

Learning takes place most effectively under conditions in which students are in competition with one another.

An entire class of students is usually able, together, to determine what the important content issues are in a course.

I feel that a teacher should try to persuade students that particular ideas are valid and exciting.

I think students have to be assertive to do well in school.

In general, I have found that the facts presented in textbooks and lectures are accurate.

I think that students should discuss specific source matter before it is presented by the teacher in a lecture format.

In their work outside the classroom, students should give top priority to readings which interest them as a result of an exciting lecture or discussion, rather than to reading assigned at some earlier point.

I favor the use of classroom methods which maximize student-teacher and student-student interaction.

Most of what students learn, they learn from books.

A teacher who lets students do whatever they want is not doing his job well.

A student should study what excites him from among the ideas presented by the instructor.

A student is usually able to determine what the important content issues in a course are.

Students can learn more by working with an exciting teacher than by working by themselves.

I think teachers should openly share with students their own personal expectations concerning a course, including their hopes and fears about the course.

Students should actively participate, as peers of the instructor, in all aspects of course planning and implementation.

In order for students to get the most out of a class, they have to be willing to work within a structure designed to maximize learning which is significant over the long run.

I think that students should think things through for themselves before a teacher lectures on course material.

In their work outside the classroom, students should give top priority to reading which has been assigned in the course, rather than to reading that happens to be of interest to them at the moment.

I favor the use of classroom methods which maximize the student's command of basic course content.

The ideas contained in a general textbook are useful in helping a student understand course material.

The ideas of other students are useful for helping a student understand course material.

A student should study what the instructor says is important and not necessarily what is important to himself.

A teacher who does not increase his student's interest in his subject area is not doing his job well.

An important part of classes is to learn how to perform under testing conditions and evaluation.

Students can learn more by sharing their ideas than by keeping their ideas to themselves.

Professors often give students too many trivial assignments.

I think teachers should encourage students to clearly state their own personal expectations concerning a course.

I think that the ideas contained in a good textbook and in detailed lectures should be the primary sources of content in a course.

I think that students should be given high grades as a means of motivating them and increasing their self-esteem.

The ideas which a student brings into a course are useful for helping him understand course material.

A student should study what is important to him and not necessarily what the instructor says is important.

Learning takes place most effectively under conditions in which students are working independently of one another.

Professors often give students too much freedom of choice.

I think teachers should clearly state what they expect from students.

I think that a student's ideas about content are often better than those in a textbook.

Students should not actively participate in those aspects of course planning and implementation which necessitate knowledge of course content.

In general, I have found that classroom discussions that are exciting also produce facts that are accurate.

Most students seem to enjoy applying ideas they have learned in a course to problems that they encounter outside the classroom.

A student's coursework should help him become a successful member of our society.

The ideas of an exciting lecturer are useful for helping a student understand course material.

Students should be primarily concerned with meeting personal learning objectives.

Learning takes place most effectively under conditions in which students are working cooperatively with one another.

Professors often are too personal with their students.

I feel that a teacher should encourage a student to disagree with him in the classroom.

I think students have to be able to work effectively with other people (students and faculty) to do well in school.

In order for students to get the most out of a class, they must take at least part of the responsibility for the course.

In general, I have found that students who do independent studies out in the field are able to learn facts that are accurate.

Most students seem to enjoy discussing their ideas about course content with the instructor and other students.

A student's coursework should help him become a more sensitive human being.

EXERCISE NUMBER THREE

TITLE: Student Learning Styles: A Role Play

SOURCE: Developed by William H. Bergquist, in association with John F. Noonan, Virginia Commonwealth University

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This exercise is useful in vividly and dramatically conveying the differences between various student learning styles, in exhibiting the way in which at least one teaching style interacts with each learning style, and in providing a context in which faculty can explore their reactions to different learning styles and can examine their own approach to each style. In essence, this exercise consists of the dramatization of a "typical" college classroom in which a specific type of teacher, usually traditional, is confronted with students playing different learning styles. Although the role play itself may take only twenty minutes or so, it generally produces more than enough material for a two- to three-hour session.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The scene for the role play is usually the first meeting of the course, during which the teacher describes his objectives; the students ask questions about assignments, grades, their role in the course, special projects, and so forth. The student roles are usually played by faculty who are participating in the seminar or workshop; the teacher is usually played by one of the seminar leaders or workshop trainers. The rest of the participants do not know the roles being played by either the students or the teacher, although they will receive a description of each learning style before the exercise begins.

The first step in implementing this exercise is to select six participants who will play the six student roles. It is generally best to ask for volunteers, for people who do not volunteer are likely to be either too resentful or too nervous to do a good job. Once the role players have been selected, they should be provided with a brief written or oral description of the roles they are to play (a set of typical role descriptions is included with this exercise). In assigning the roles, it is usually best to choose individuals who do *not* naturally seem to fit that particular style, so that the fictional element of the role play is maintained. It is also important to encourage the role players to give a realistic performance, for excessive distortion will reduce the amount of learning possible from the exercise. Each player should be exposed to only his own role, and the role players should not be given a long time to prepare for the exercise. While the role players are being briefed, the other participants should be studying "Student Learning Styles" from Instrument Number One, for it will be their task during the exercise to try to determine which role each of the role players is playing.

The role play begins with the teacher entering the simulated classroom to start the course. Observers should be seated in a circle around this classroom. We have found that a "traditional" teaching role is usually most effective in this role play. The role, however, should definitely not be caricaturized but should rather be played with all of the strengths and weaknesses of a content-oriented faculty member in the traditional classroom. The teacher begins by describing the course, usually one at an elementary level, and the students act out their roles by asking about various aspects of the course. The role play

should last long enough for each of the players to have had a chance to articulate his particular role.

Upon completion of the role play, the observers should be asked to form small groups and compare their identifications of each of the roles with each other. In the meantime, the exercise leader should talk briefly with the role players themselves to defuse any negative feelings that may have been generated while they were in role and to gain a perspective on their performance from the other role players. The exercise concludes with each observer group reporting on its conclusions and, often, with a general discussion of student learning styles.

Variations:

1. In addition to reporting on their observations, participants may be asked to describe their own reactions to each type of learner, to describe the way in which they would work with each type of student, and to explore the implications these styles might have for their own course planning, grading, and even teaching.
2. The role play may be replayed one or more times, with various faculty participants playing the role of the teacher, either as they would normally play it in their own classes or in a style quite unlike their own.
3. The role play may be video taped and replayed one or more times to assist in the discussion of the exercise.
4. Instead of having a single teacher, the role play may be designed to simulate a team-teaching situation. In this setting, one can gain a perspective on the relationship between various learning and two teaching styles, as well as observe the interaction between two teachers.
5. A somewhat more sophisticated form of role playing involves the use of "alter egos." In this variant, additional role players are selected at the start of the role play (or mid-way through) to play the alter egos of the students and/or the teacher. These alter egos sit behind the role player they are representing and express aloud the "hidden" thoughts and feelings which they think their ego would like to express in a more trustful, supportive environment. Whenever an alter ego makes a statement, the role player must agree with it or correct it in accordance with the thoughts and feelings he is actually experiencing at that moment. This technique is best used in a workshop where a supportive environment has already been created.
6. After completing either the basic exercise or one of these variations, one or more of the following reaction questions may be used to continue the discussion of student learning styles:
   a. Which of these students would you most like to work with in your classroom? Least like to work with?
   b. Which of these students do you think would profit most from you as a teacher? Profit least?
   c. Which of these students would probably most enjoy working with you in a course? Least enjoy?
   d. Which of these students would you most like to be more effective with?
   e. If you had to eliminate one of these students from your classroom, which one would it be? Why?
   f. Which type of student do you find most difficult to evaluate? Why?

g. Which type of student is most like you when you were a student? Least like you?
h. Which type of student is most like you as you now function as a learner? Least like you?
i. Which type of student do you think you are most likely to encounter in your courses in the future? What are the implications of this for your own development as a teacher?
j. Which of your reactions during the role playing was most surprising to you? What did you learn from this reaction?

STUDENT LEARNING STYLES:
A ROLE DESCRIPTION

Competitive:

You learn course material in order to perform better than the other students in the class. You feel you must compete with the other students in the class for the rewards of the classroom, such as grades or the teacher's attention. You view the classroom as a win-lose situation, where you must always win.

Dependent:

You have little intellectual curiosity and learn only what is required. You see your teacher and classmates as sources of structure and support. You look to authority figures for guidelines and want to be told what to do.

Participant:

You want to learn the material of the course and like to go to class. You take responsibility for getting the most out of class and participate with others when told to do so. You feel that you should take part in as much of the class related activity as possible but you do little that is not part of the course outline.

Collaborative:

You feel you can learn the most by sharing your ideas and talents. You cooperate with teachers and peers and like to work with others. You see the classroom as a place for social interaction as well as content learning.

Avoidant:

You are not interested in learning course content in the traditional classroom. You do not participate with students and teachers. You are uninterested or overwhelmed by what goes on in class.

Independent:

You like to think for yourself. You would rather work on your own, but you will listen to the ideas of others in the classroom. You learn the content you feel is important and are confident of your learning abilities.

INSTRUMENT NUMBER ONE

TITLE: Student Learning Styles Questionnaire: General Form

SOURCE: Adapted from the Grasha-Riechmann Student Learning Styles Questionnaire developed at the Institute for Research and Training in Higher Education, University of Cincinnati

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: The following questionnaire is designed to allow students to determine their generally preferred style of learning. This is often a useful way to introduce the concept of different student learning styles to a class and to generate a discussion between students and faculty about the interaction of styles of learning and teaching. When used on the first day of a class, this questionnaire has been found effective in providing faculty with information that can be useful in designing particular learning experiences for that class.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The questionnaire contains its own instructions and is hand scored. After each student has completed and scored the questionnaire, the instructor may then create a profile of the class by counting the number of students whose top one or two scores fall under the various learning styles. Some faculty have found this a useful opportunity to discuss their own teaching style and to explore with the class the implications this style will have as it interacts with the learning styles of the class.

STUDENT LEARNING STYLES QUESTIONNAIRE: GENERAL FORM

The following questionnaire has been designed to help you clarify your attitudes and feelings toward the courses you have taken in college and to identify your preferred learning style(s). Remember, formulate your answers with regard to your general attitudes and feelings toward your courses.

Write your answers on the enclosed questionnaire. To the left of each question number, write the number that best explains how you feel about the statement as follows:

Mark *1* if you *strongly disagree* with the statement.

Mark *2* if you *moderately disagree* with the statement.

Mark *3* if you are *undecided*.

Mark *4* if you *moderately agree* with the statement.

Mark *5* if you *strongly agree* with the statement.

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1. Most of what I know, I learned on my own.
2. I have a difficult time paying attention during class sessions.
3. I find the ideas of other students relatively useful for helping me to understand the course material.
4. I think a teacher who lets students do whatever they want is not doing his job well.
5. I like other students to know when I have done a good job.
6. I try to participate as much as I can in all aspects of a course.
7. I study what is important to me and not necessarily what the instructor says is important.
8. I feel that I have to attend class rather than feeling that I want to attend.
9. I think an important part of classes is to learn to get along with other people.
10. I accept the structure a teacher sets for a course.
11. To get ahead in class, I think sometimes you have to step on the toes of the other students.
12. I do not have trouble paying attention in classes.
13. I think I can determine what the important content issues are in a course.
14. If I do not understand course material, I just forget about it.
15. I think students can learn more by sharing their ideas than by keeping their ideas to themselves.
16. I think teachers should clearly state what they expect from students.
17. I think students have to be aggressive to do well in school.
18. I get more out of going to class than staying at home.
19. I feel that my ideas about content are often as good as those in a textbook.
20. I try to spend as little time as possible on a course outside of class.

21. I like to study for tests with other students.
22. I like tests taken right out of the book.
23. I feel that I must compete with the other students to get a grade.
24. I attend classes because I want to learn something.
25. I am confident in my abilities to learn important course material.
26. School does not really interest me.
27. I think students should be encouraged to work together.
28. I feel that facts presented in textbooks and lectures are correct.
29. I like the teacher to notice me.
30. I feel that classroom activities are generally interesting.
31. I like to think things through for myself before a teacher lectures on course material.
32. I seldom get excited about material covered in a course.
33. I prefer not to work alone on assignments.
34. Before working on a class project, I try to get the approval of the instructor.
35. To do well in a course, I have to compete with the other students for the teacher's attention.
36. I do my assignments before reading other things that interest me.
37. I do not like a lot of structure in a class.
38. I have given up trying to learn anything from going to class.
39. I like to hear what other students think about the issues raised in class.
40. I think teachers are the best judges of what is important in a course.
41. During class discussions I feel that I have to compete with the other students to get my ideas across.
42. I think classes are very worthwhile.
43. I work on class related projects (e.g., studying for exams, preparing term papers) by myself.
44. I feel that classroom activities are generally boring.
45. I prefer to work in groups rather than alone on class projects.
46. I try my best to do assignments the way the professor says they should be done.
47. I like to see if I can get the answers to problems or questions before anybody else in class does.
48. I am eager to learn about areas covered in class.
49. I do assignments my own way without checking with other students about how they are going to do them.
50. I do not feel that I miss anything if I cut class.
51. I like to talk to other students outside of class about the ideas and issues raised in class.
52. I tend not to think or work on problems or issues in a field unless they were first covered in the text or lectures.
53. I think a student is hurting himself if he shares his notes and ideas with other students before an exam.
54. I feel that I can really learn something in a course.
55. I feel that too much assigned work keeps students from developing their own ideas.
56. I am in school only to get a degree.

57. I try to get to know other students in my classes on a personal level.
58. I think too much class discussion prevents the teacher from covering enough required material.
59. I like to know that I have done better than other students in my class.
60. I do my assignments whether I think they are interesting or not.
61. My ideas about content issues are often as good as those of the instructor.
62. I sit where the teacher is unlikely to notice me.
63. I feel that students and teachers should develop the kind of relationship where a student can tell his teacher if he feels a course is not going well.
64. I feel that I can learn what is important by doing what the professor says.
65. I think students should be graded according to how well they do in a class.
66. I try to do the best that I can in my courses.
67. I do not like a teacher to tell me what I have to learn.
68. I study just hard enough to get by in a course.
69. I like courses where students are encouraged to discuss course material.
70. I seldom try to learn things related to the course that are not covered in the text or lectures.
71. I like to know how well the other students are doing on exams.
72. I feel that I can get something out of going to class.
73. I like courses where students are allowed to pursue topics that interest them.
74. I prefer that the teacher never calls on me.
75. I think learning should be a cooperative effort between faculty and students.
76. I think the teacher should emphasize the content that I must learn.
77. I only help other students when I feel it will not hurt me.
78. I sit where I can be sure to hear the professor and see what he writes.
79. If a topic raised in class interests me, I will go out on my own to find out more about it.
80. I think one of the most important things about a course is how easy it is for me to get a good grade.
81. I try to help other students when they have a hard time understanding course material.
82. I enjoy class sessions that are highly organized.
83. I do not like the instructor to deviate from his lectures.
84. I work on reading assignments until I feel I understand the material.
85. I have my own ideas about how a course should be run.
86. I feel that school is not relevant to what I want to do when I graduate.
87. I feel a responsibility to help other students learn.
88. I try my best to write in my notes everything the teacher says.
89. I try to do assignments better than other students.
90. I do my assignments as soon as possible after assignments are made.

SCORE SHEET
STUDENT LEARNING STYLES QUESTIONNAIRE: GENERAL FORM

Instructions:

The numbers below represent the numbers of the statements in the questionnaire. To the right of each number place the number (1 to 5) that you assigned it on the questionnaire. Add the numbers in each column. The relative totals will indicate your preferred learning style(s) as described on the next page.

Independent	Avoidant	Collaborative
1	2	3 .....
7	8	9 .....
13	14	15 .....
19	20	21 .....
25	26	27 .....
31	32	33 .....
37	38	39 .....
43	44	45 .....
49	50	51 .....
55	56	57 .....
61	62	63 .....
67	68	69 .....
73	74	75 .....
79	80	81 .....
85	86	87 .....
Total	Total	Total .....

Dependent	Competitive	Participant
4	5	6 .....
10	11	12 .....
16	17	18 .....
22	23	24 .....
28	29	30 .....
34	35	36 .....
40	41	42 .....
46	47	48 .....
52	53	54 .....
58	59	60 .....
64	65	66 .....
70	71	72 .....
76	77	78 .....
82	83	84 .....
88	89	90 .....
Total	Total	Total .....

STUDENT LEARNING STYLES

Independent:

This response style is characteristic of the student who likes to think for himself. He prefers to work on his own, but he will listen to the ideas of others in the classroom. He learns the content he feels is important and is confident in his learning abilities.

Avoidant:

This response style is typical of a student who is not interested in learning course content in the traditional classroom. He does not participate with students and teachers in the classroom. He is uninterested or overwhelmed by what goes on in classes.

Collaborative:

This style is typical of the student who feels he can learn the most by sharing his ideas and talents. He cooperates with teachers and peers and likes to work with others. He sees the classroom as a place for social interaction as well as content learning.

Dependent:

This style is characteristic of the student who shows little intellectual curiosity and who learns only what is required. He sees teacher and peers as sources of structure and support. He looks to authority figures for guidelines and wants to be told what to do.

Competitive:

This response style is exhibited by the student who learns material in order to perform better than others in the class. He feels he must compete with other students in the class for the rewards of the classroom, such as grades or teacher's attention. He views the classroom as a win-lose situation, where he must always win.

Participant:

This style is characteristic of the student who wants to learn course content and likes to go to class. He takes responsibility for getting the most out of class and participates with others when told to do so. He feels that he should take part in as much of the class related activity as possible but he does little that is not part of the course outline.

INSTRUMENT NUMBER TWO

TITLE: Student Learning Styles Questionnaire: Specific Class Form

SOURCE: Adapted from the Grasha-Riechmann Student Learning Styles Questionnaire: Specific Class Form developed at the Institute for Research and Training in Higher Education, University of Cincinnati

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Just as many experienced faculty are able to modify their teaching style to fit the demands of various courses, so too do students frequently vary their learning styles to conform to different teachers and courses. This questionnaire allows each student to determine the learning style(s) he has developed for a particular course rather than for college in general. So that students have had a chance to develop their learning styles in relation to a particular class, this questionnaire should not be used until the course is well under way.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This questionnaire is used in the same manner as the more general questionnaire. If that general form was used at the beginning of the semester, it is sometimes interesting to compare the different approaches a group of students will take to college in general and to a particular course. Often this form can be a useful diagnostic instrument for examining the dynamics of teaching and learning taking place in a particular classroom. As with the general form, many faculty have found this questionnaire a useful way of opening discussion with a class about learning and teaching styles.

STUDENT LEARNING STYLES QUESTIONNAIRE: SPECIFIC CLASS FORM

The following questionnaire has been designed to help you clarify your attitudes and feelings toward this course and to identify your preferred learning style(s). Your answers to each specific question will remain in your hands and will not be made available to either your instructor or the other members of this class. Remember, formulate your answers with regard to this class and this class only.

Write your answers on the enclosed questionnaire. To the left of each question number, write the number that best explains how you feel about the statement as follows:

Mark *1* if you *strongly disagree* with the statement.
Mark *2* if you *moderately disagree* with the statement.
Mark *3* if you are *undecided.*
Mark *4* if you *moderately agree* with the statement.
Mark *5* if you *strongly agree* with the statement.

---

1. Most of what I know about material relating to this course, I learned on my own.
2. I have a difficult time paying attention during class sessions.
3. I find the ideas of the other students relatively useful for helping me to understand the course material.
4. I think that if the teacher lets the students in this class do whatever they want, he would not be doing his job well.
5. I like other students in this class to know when I have done a good job.
6. I try to participate as much as I can in all aspects of this course.
7. I study what is important to me and not necessarily what the instructor says is important.
8. I feel that I have to attend this class rather than feeling that I want to attend.
9. I think an important part of this class is to learn to get along with other people.
10. I accept the structure the teacher sets for this course.
11. To get ahead in this class, I think sometimes you have to step on the toes of the other students.
12. I do not have trouble paying attention in this class.
13. I think I can determine what the important content issues are in this course.
14. If I do not understand the course material, I just forget about it.
15. For this course, I think students can learn more by sharing their ideas than by keeping their ideas to themselves.
16. I think this teacher should clearly state what he expects from students.
17. I think students have to be aggressive to do well in this course.
18. I get more out of going to this class than spending that time at home.
19. I feel that my ideas about the content are often as good as those in the textbook.

20. I try to spend as little time as possible on this course outside of class.
21. For this course, I like to study for tests with other students.
22. I like the tests for this course to be taken right out of the book.
23. I feel that I must compete with the other students in class to get a grade.
24. I attend this class because I want to learn something.
25. I am confident in my abilities to learn the important material.
26. This course does not really interest me.
27. I think students in this class should be encouraged to work together.
28. I feel that facts presented in the textbook and lectures are correct.
29. I like this teacher to notice me.
30. I feel that the activities we have in class are generally interesting.
31. I like to think things through for myself before the teacher lectures on the course material.
32. I seldom get excited about material covered in this course.
33. I prefer not to work alone on the assignments.
34. Before working on a class project, I try to get the approval of the instructor.
35. To do well in this course, I have to compete with the other students for the teacher's attention.
36. I do my assignments before reading other things that interest me.
37. I do not like a lot of structure in this class.
38. I have given up trying to learn anything from going to this class.
39. I like to hear what other students think about the issues raised in class.
40. I think the teacher is the best judge of what is important to know.
41. During class discussions, I feel that I have to compete with the other students to get my ideas across.
42. I think this class is very worthwhile.
43. I work by myself on class related projects (e.g., studying for exams, preparing term papers).
44. I feel that activities in class are generally boring.
45. I prefer to work in groups rather than alone on class projects.
46. I try my best to do the assignments for this class the way the professor says they should be done.
47. I like to see if I can get the answers to problems or questions before anybody else in class does.
48. I am eager to learn about areas covered in class.
49. I do assignments for this course my own way without checking with the other students about how they are going to do them.
50. I do not feel that I miss anything if I cut this class.
51. I like to talk to other students outside of class about the ideas and issues raised in class.
52. I tend not to think or work on problems or issues related to this course unless they were first covered in the text or lectures.
53. I think a student in this course is hurting himself if he shares his notes and ideas with other students before an exam.
54. I feel that I can really learn something in this course.

55. I feel that too much assigned work keeps students from developing their own ideas.
56. I am in this course only to fulfill a requirement.
57. I try to get to know other students in this class on a personal level.
58. I think too much discussion in this class prevents the teacher from covering enough required material.
59. I like to know that I have done better than the other students in this class.
60. I do my assignments for this course whether I think they are interesting or not.
61. My ideas about content issues are often as good as those of this instructor.
62. For this course I sit where the teacher is unlikely to notice me.
63. I feel that students and the teacher should develop the kind of relationship in this course where a student can tell the teacher if he feels the course is not going well.
64. I feel that I can learn what is important in this course by doing what the professor says.
65. I think students taking this course should be graded according to how well they do in class.
66. I try to do the best that I can in this course.
67. I do not like the teacher to tell me what I have to learn.
68. I study just hard enough to get by in this course.
69. I like this course when students are encouraged to discuss course material.
70. I seldom try to learn material related to this course when it is not covered in the text or lectures.
71. I like to know how well the other students in this course are doing on exams.
72. I feel that I can get something out of going to this class.
73. I like this course when students are allowed to pursue topics that interest them.
74. I prefer that this teacher never calls on me.
75. I think learning in this course should be a cooperative effort between the teacher and students.
76. I think the teacher should emphasize the content that I must learn.
77. I only help other students with material for this course when I feel it will not hurt me.
78. In this class I sit where I can be sure to hear the professor and see what he writes.
79. If a topic raised in this class interests me, I will go out on my own to find out more about it.
80. I think one of the most important things about this course is how easy it is for me to get a good grade.
81. I try to help the other students when they have a hard time understanding the course material.
82. I enjoy this course when class sessions are highly organized.
83. I do not like this instructor to deviate from his lectures.
84. I work on the reading assignments for this course until I feel I understand the material.
85. I have my own ideas about how this course should be run.
86. I feel that this course is not relevant to what I want to do when I graduate.
87. I feel a responsibility to help the other students in this class learn course material.
88. I try my best to write in my notes everything this teacher says.
89. I try to do assignments better than the other students.
90. I do my assignments as soon as possible after the assignments are made.

SCORE SHEET
STUDENT LEARNING STYLES QUESTIONNAIRE: SPECIFIC CLASS FORM

Instructions:

The numbers below represent the numbers of the statements in the questionnaire. To the right of each number place the number (1 to 5) that you assigned it on the questionnaire. Add the numbers in each column. The relative totals will indicate your preferred learning style(s) as described on the next page.

Independent	Avoidant	Collaborative
1	2	3 .....
7	8	9 .....
13	14	15 .....
19	20	21 .....
25	26	27 .....
31	32	33 .....
37	38	39 .....
43	44	45 .....
49	50	51 .....
55	56	57 .....
61	62	63 .....
67	68	69 .....
73	74	75 .....
79	80	81 .....
85	86	87 .....
Total	Total	Total .....

Dependent	Competitive	Participant
4	5	6 .....
10	11	12 .....
16	17	18 .....
22	23	24 .....
28	29	30 .....
34	35	36 .....
40	41	42 .....
46	47	48 .....
52	53	54 .....
58	59	60 .....
64	65	66 .....
70	71	72 .....
76	77	78 .....
82	83	84 .....
88	89	90 .....
Total	Total	Total .....

STUDENT LEARNING STYLES

Independent:

This response style is characteristic of the student who likes to think for himself. He prefers to work on his own, but he will listen to the ideas of others in the classroom. He learns the content he feels is important and is confident in his learning abilities.

Avoidant:

This response style is typical of a student who is not interested in learning course content in the traditional classroom. He does not participate with students and teachers in the classroom. He is uninterested or overwhelmed by what goes on in classes.

Collaborative:

This style is typical of the student who feels he can learn the most by sharing his ideas and talents. He cooperates with teachers and peers and likes to work with others. He sees the classroom as a place for social interaction as well as content learning.

Dependent:

This style is characteristic of the student who shows little intellectual curiosity and who learns only what is required. He sees teacher and peers as sources of structure and support. He looks to authority figures for guidelines and wants to be told what to do.

Competitive:

This response style is exhibited by the student who learns material in order to perform better than others in the class. He feels he must compete with other students in the class for the rewards of the classroom such as grades or teacher's attention. He views the classroom as a win-lose situation, where he must always win.

Participant:

This style is characteristic of the student who wants to learn course content and likes to go to class. He takes responsibility for getting the most out of class and participates with others when told to do so. He feels that he should take part in as much of the class related activity as possible but he does little that is not part of the course outline.

References and Further Readings:

The sources of the various styles of teaching and learning discussed in this chapter have been noted in the appropriate footnotes. For a related but somewhat different approach to the complex interaction of teaching, learning, content, and environment, see Roger Harrison, "Classroom Innovation: A Design Primer," in Philip Runkel, Roger Harrison, and Margaret Runkel, *The Changing College Classroom* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1969), pp. 302-340.

Chapter Three

Instructional Evaluation

The role of evaluation in bringing about change is widely recognized and accepted. Any organization that wishes to change in a systematic and thoughtful manner must continually assess the discrepancy between current operations and desired outcomes. Such an assessment procedure is necessarily evaluative in nature, since values and preferences are inherent in any statement of desired outcomes. Student evaluation is probably the most commonly used method of instigating change in faculty performance. Two other sources of evaluation, by the instructor himself and by his peers, are both used more sparingly. Many faculty, however, acknowledge the value of each and in some instances prefer such evaluation to student evaluation. A brief discussion of each of these modes of evaluation follows.

A. Self-Evaluation

The faculty member himself is, of course, the most critical factor in any effective program designed to improve instruction. An attempt at instructional improvement on the part of the faculty member will only take place if he evaluates his own performance as inadequate or below his own personal standards. Several aspects of faculty development are designed primarily to help a faculty member become fully aware of such possible discrepancies in a way that will be both insightful and helpful; training can then be offered to reduce these discrepancies.

Another way to conceptualize this aspect of change can be borrowed from Kurt Lewin,[1] who describes the "unfreezing" phase of change. An individual must have experienced some discrepancy, dissonance, pain, or stress before he will commit himself to the difficult task of change. Lewin believes that this unfreezing must precede any significant learning experience if change is to occur. Without this unfreezing an individual will either proceed "pro forma" through the change program without really being affected by it or will resist the program before it is even begun.

An effective faculty development program should contain a phase in which faculty are asked to assess their own strengths, weaknesses, and areas for improvement. One procedure that can be followed is to have the faculty member fill out the same evaluation instrument that is being completed by his peers or students. Discrepancies can thus be noted between not only the faculty member's own ratings and the ratings he desires of himself, but also between his own ratings and the ratings of others. This "consensual validation"[2] procedure is essential to personal growth as well as to instructional development.[3]

B. Peer Evaluation

This form of evaluation is rarely found in faculty development programs, though several instances of peer evaluation are cited by Eble.[4] The evaluators in these cases were not actually "peers" in the strict sense of the word, since they were either senior and usually tenured faculty observing untenured faculty or were untenured faculty observing graduate teaching assistants. The reluctance of many academic institutions and departments to develop a peer evaluation program is quite understandable given the shortage of time and the low level of trust found in

many academic organizations. These factors must be faced and overcome if peer evaluation is to succeed.

One effective way of reducing the time factor is to encourage team-teaching. By attending another team member's classes, one can provide informal peer observation and evaluation while participating in a course for which one is partially responsible and compensated. Alternatively, if a department regularly rotates class assignments then it will benefit a faculty member to sit in on a colleague's course, knowing he will eventually be teaching that course. Designating one member of the department as a master teacher is another means of encouraging peer evaluation. This person would be chosen on the basis of such widely-accepted criteria of success as course enrollment, student performance on standardized tests, reputation, or teaching experience. This master teacher could, in turn, be assigned a reduced teaching load, so that he might attend colleagues' classes. This assignment should probably be rotated among several faculty on a yearly basis.

It is important to establish trust if successful peer evaluation is to take place. The individual faculty member must, first of all, be relatively non-defensive about the evaluation of his teaching. In preparation for such evaluation many teachers should receive some personal growth and interpersonal skills training, though such training itself is often somewhat threatening. Alternatively, the individual who is doing the evaluation can try to present it in as non-evaluative, descriptive, and helpful a way as possible. This type of information is usually much easier for the faculty member to receive and absorb in a non-defensive manner. Interpersonal skills training for the individual who is offering the evaluation is therefore valuable—if not essential. Alternatively, one can develop the kind of training program for classroom observation and diagnosis that is discussed in Chapter Four.

Trust may be increased through various organizational efforts. Structures can be changed to increase communication, and status differences, such as having peer evaluation of only non-tenured or graduate student teachers, can be reduced. Awards for good teaching can be developed, and team-building efforts can be undertaken at the departmental or divisional level. Of potential benefit at both a personal and organizational level is the faculty interview, discussed in Chapter Twelve, which helps to create interpersonal trust, while establishing an organizational norm for openness about teaching.

Once established as an acceptable, relatively low-threat means of improving instruction, peer evaluation can be conducted on either a formal or informal basis. The faculty member can invite a peer to sit in and make comments on one or two class sessions, or a department can establish a balanced program of exchange, using a structured observation schedule. Peers might quite profitably be asked to evaluate on the basis of categories that are being used by students and/or the faculty member himself.

C. Student Evaluation

A great deal has recently been written about student evaluation of college teaching.[5] An attempt will not be made here to review the methods of student evaluation or the research that bears upon its validity. Rather, attention will be given to the actual (or potential) role of student evaluation in faculty development. Consideration will first be given to several of the more positive aspects of student evaluation.

While many colleges and universities reward faculty for their research, student evaluations of teaching draw attention directly to instruction. Research-based criteria for promotion, salary

increases, and tenure are popular, precisely because they are fairly easily objectified and even quantified. Such criteria are rarely found in assessments of teaching, except in the case of published textbooks and various kinds of teaching aids.[6] Student evaluations allow for such criteria and hence give teaching a "fighting chance" against research as a basis for evaluating faculty performance.

Research is also given first priority in many institutions because it is a prized enterprise with tangible results. Teaching, on the other hand, does not allow for comparisons. Precisely because most classrooms are autonomous and because most professors grade either on the basis of a curve or on some subjective standard, one is unable to compare the production of two or more teachers. If effectively conducted, student evaluations produce data that allow for valid comparisons between teaching performances, even if the differences in quality of production are not directly measured or compared. In other words, the student evaluation can help increase the teacher's "accountability" in the classroom, thereby increasing the balance that might be assigned to documented effective teaching.

Student evaluations may also provide a new medium for student-faculty interaction, thus hopefully assisting the faculty member in the development of instructional skills. The student becomes an active participant in decisions concerning classroom instruction and serves in a "helping" role by providing the instructor with information on his performance. The instructor, in turn, assumes a temporary "recipient" role. He is being provided with new information, emanating from a consumer population, concerning his own capabilities and style. The instructor, then, becomes accountable to the students who, in turn, become responsible for providing the instructor with valid and useful information about his classroom performance.

Accountability is also enhanced by student evaluation. Frequently, when teaching is used as a primary basis for performance evaluation, either because research is deemphasized, as in many private and community colleges, or because the faculty member has been trained specifically for teaching purposes, the primary criteria for this evaluation may too often become hearsay, orthodoxy, or politics. In each instance, the faculty member's performance in the classroom is not being directly or justly assessed. The student evaluation provides fair, though limited, input concerning instructional performance in the classroom and hence can be useful in both faculty evaluation and development.

The negative aspects of student evaluation should not be ignored, however. First, a low evaluation may result in defensive behavior which can only block the process of change. One of the paradoxes inherent in change is that both people and institutions are least likely to change when someone tells them that they should change. Thus, when presented with negative evaluations, many instructors are inclined to rationalize away the information ("The students don't know what is good for them," "The instrument isn't valid," "That isn't really an important part of teaching anyway") or simply to ignore it, particularly if the information is at odds with their sense of their own teaching ability. One way of possibly avoiding a defensive response on the part of the faculty member is to develop a multilevel evaluative instrument which would provide general and summary information for use by administrators and department chairmen but would reserve specific diagnostic and evaluative data for the exclusive use of the faculty member. Such an evaluation would provide both administratively useful and diagnostically helpful information.

A second limitation of student evaluation is that the usefulness of the information generated by most instruments is often questionable. A typical course evaluation instrument will in-

clude items such as "The teacher establishes a warm rapport with the students" or "The teacher presents a clear, coherent lecture." What can a teacher learn from low ratings on either of these items? Neither item provides the type of discrete, concrete information that leads to change. Furthermore, most items of this sort are highly correlated with general evaluative items (ratings of overall course quality) and hence may not be in fact measuring anything other than how much the student liked the course content and/or course instructor.

Third, student evaluations are also a disservice to the development of faculty when, as is often the case, they are used as the only means of feedback to the instructor. While student evaluations are important, they provide only one type of information; faculty should not ignore the usefulness of self and peer evaluations, classroom diagnosis, behavioral outcomes, and post-course follow-up. Student evaluations are very seductive: they are inexpensive, they involve student time (expendable) rather than faculty time (valuable), they are easily quantified and computerized. Consequently, many administrators and some faculty may assume they are an adequate and sufficient means of evaluation. In some cases, however, no information may be better than partial information. When such crucial decisions as those of promotion, salary, and tenure depend on such information, it would seem the development of reliable and helpful student evaluations is essential.

Several steps can be taken to improve the quality of student evaluation procedures: (1) the instrument can be reduced to a minimal number of items by means of factor analysis and related statistical techniques; (2) the instrument can be designed to be minimally evaluative and maximally descriptive, using check-lists and precise situational-descriptors ("under condition X, the teacher is likely to do . . .: a, b, c, or d"); and (3) the instrument can be constructed so that some items can be used for tenure, salary, and promotion decisions, while other items can encourage instructional improvement. The items on the former should be evaluative and the data should be made available to department chairmen and deans; the items on the latter should be descriptive and should be made available only to the instructor. The student evaluation procedure should also be closely integrated with other segments of a faculty development program. Any category of instruction which is being evaluated must also be an area in which training opportunities are available, otherwise the evaluation procedure becomes a weapon rather than an instrument for change: a teacher is told he is doing an inadequate job, yet is given no way to improve that job.

D. General Conclusions

The strengths and weaknesses of evaluative approaches highlight a number of key issues concerning faculty development. First, self, peer, and student evaluation can be useful aspects of faculty development. In isolation, however, each of these approaches is potentially more destructive than not and consequently should be integrated into a comprehensive, multistrategy approach to faculty development. Second, change is a subtle and complex process. It is not encouraged by the use of an insensitive, often arbitrary, reliance on evaluative ratings of performance. Preparation for change ("unfreezing") in instructional performance occurs when the teacher is confronted with information that is discrepant with his self-image but which does not deflate his self-esteem. This information is requested by the instructor, rather than forced on him; it is descriptive, rather than evaluative; it is concrete, rather than general; it is presented in a context of trust, rather than threat. The process of change only takes place when the instructor is presented with information, training, and consultation which is directly related to perceived

needs. The following instruments can play an important part in that process.

NOTES:

[1] See, for example, R. Lippett, J. Watson, and B. Westley, *Dynamics of Planned Change* (New York: Harcourt, 1958).

[2] Harry Stack Sullivan, *The Interpersonal Theory of Psychiatry* (New York: Norton, 1953).

[3] Though self-evaluation is not being systematically used by many colleges, Ron J. McBeath, Director, Instructional Resources Center, San Jose State University, is currently developing a sophisticated self-evaluation procedure.

[4] Kenneth E. Eble, *Professors as Teachers* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972).

[5] See, for example, Richard I. Miller, *Evaluating Faculty Performance* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972).

[6] For a relevant discussion of this, see R. Brandis, "The Rehabilitation of University Undergraduate Teaching," *Educational Record*, 45 (1964), 56-63.

INSTRUMENT NUMBER THREE

TITLE: CASC Instructional Assessment System (IAS)

SOURCE: William H. Bergquist; the instruments contained in this system have been derived in part from evaluation instruments developed at the University of Idaho, Elmira College, and Kansas State University.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This set of instruments has been developed to provide a faculty member with a diversity of information about his teaching performance obtained from several sources, using several methods. These instruments constitute a "system" in that each of them is closely linked with the others; if one instrument is used in conjunction with one or more of the others, then its value is greatly enhanced.

The CASC Instructional Assessment System (IAS) consists of seven instruments:

1. Self-Evaluation
2. Peer-Evaluation
3. Student Evaluation: General
4. Student Evaluation: Lecture
5. Student Evaluation: Seminar and Discussion
6. Student Evaluation: Laboratory
7. Student Evaluation: Studio

Multiple-methods have been used in order to eliminate any consistent method-bias in the evaluation procedure.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE:

1. Self-Evaluation

   The faculty member may wish to begin by examining his own personal opinions about his effectiveness as a teacher. He might consider his strengths and weaknesses, as well as the extent to which he values and is successful in accomplishing certain types of learning goals for a specific course. The IAS self-evaluation form is designed to assist in this process. This form also enables the faculty member to compare his own personal evaluation and his expectations concerning how students will evaluate him with the actual evaluation made by the students. Any significant discrepancies in these scores indicate the need for a re-examination by the faculty member of his own perceptions and perhaps a critical assessment of what aspects of his relationships with students may have produced the discrepancy.

2. Peer-Evaluation

   The faculty member should decide if he wishes to have his course evaluated by a peer, either another faculty member in his department or in another department. If he does not, then he may proceed to step three. If he does wish to obtain a peer evaluation, then the peer should attend one or more sessions of the course; although the faculty member being evaluated may be informed as to when he will be observed, his performance in the classroom should be as typical as possible. The IAS peer evaluation form may be abridged by deleting irrelevant or unwanted sections or expanded by including additional information developed by the peer in consultation with the faculty member.

If possible, an IAS evaluation form should be filled out by the peer each time he observes the course. The peer evaluation form should be returned to the observed faculty member as soon as possible and should be followed by a personal exchange of impressions and evaluations between the faculty member and his peer. If possible, the faculty member himself might fill out the peer evaluation (before reading the peer's ratings) by completing the instrument as if he were observing his own performance in that particular class.

3. Student Evaluation

In obtaining evaluations from the students enrolled in a specific course, the faculty member should, in most cases, use the general form as well as one or more of the other student evaluation instruments that have been designed for use with specific types of courses. It is best to distribute the selected instruments during a regularly scheduled class period. If possible, all students should be encouraged to attend the class in order to obtain a representative sample. No special activities should be planned that might either discourage or encourage the attendance of certain types of students.

The instruments should be collected and analyzed by someone other than the instructor. The summary data and responses to open-ended questions should be returned to the faculty member immediately after the course grades have been recorded, or, if given out during the middle of the term, as soon as possible. A representative group of students may be selected, if possible, to meet with the faculty member in order to discuss and interpret the results obtained.

Special Note:

Though the CASC Instructional Assessment System has been designed for use by individual instructors, rather than for use in an institution-wide evaluation program, it will become more valuable if normative information is collected from a variety of institutions; this will allow a faculty member to compare his results with those of other faculty members in similar disciplines at similar types of institutions. The Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges would greatly appreciate receiving from you the mean, standard deviation, and number of respondents to each of the items on any of the IAS instruments (when determining the mean scores, do not count "uncertain" responses). Please include the name, or a brief description, of the institution in which the evaluation was conducted, as well as information on the discipline, course title, course level, and number of students enrolled in the course. Critical comments about any of the instruments would also be appreciated. Send this information to:

Instructional Assessment System
Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges
Suite 750, One Dupont Circle
Washington, D.C. 20036

Thank you very much for your assistance.

COUNCIL FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SMALL COLLEGES
INSTRUCTIONAL ASSESSMENT SYSTEM
SELF-EVALUATION

Course Number and Title: _____

_____

SECTION I:

In assessing your own strengths as the teacher of this course, what do you identify as being the five activities that you most effectively perform:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

Which of these activities do you think are valued by the students taking this course? Which are not? Which of these activities are likely to be valued by your colleagues? Which are not?

What other activities would you like to be able to perform in an effective manner, that either you do not now perform, or perform in a mediocre manner?

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

What steps would have to be taken for you to acquire the necessary skills or resources to perform these activities?

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

In assessing your limitations as the teacher of this course, what do you identify as being the five activities that you least effectively perform?

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

Which of these activities do you think are valued by the students taking this course? Which are not? Which of these activities are likely to be valued by your colleagues? Which are not?

What steps would have to be taken to acquire the necessary skills or resources to perform these activities more effectively?

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

SECTION II:

Please indicate by using the following scale the extent to which you think each of the following types of learning should occur in this course.

1 = this should be a major learning goal in this course
2 = this should be a minor learning goal in this course
3 = this should be a peripheral learning goal in this course
4 = this should not be a learning goal in this course
5 = uncertain

..... a) *Factual Knowledge:* new terms, methods, or information are acquired.

..... b) *Skills-Training:* students learn how to perform specific tasks or how to fill particular professional roles.

..... c) *Principles:* new theories, generalizations, and ways of organizing information are learned.

d) *Application:* students learn how to use new information, concepts, and methods to solve current problems.

e) *Creativity:* students learn how to be more expressive in the use of a specific medium (words, paint, music, and so forth) or how to approach and solve problems in a new way.

f) *Appreciation:* greater sensitivity to specific intellectual, scientific, or artistic endeavors is learned.

g) *Self-Understanding:* the student acquires a better sense of himself and/or his relationships with other people.

h) *Self-Management:* the student learns how to plan more effectively for and/or control his own personal and professional life.

You may wish to compare your ratings on this section to the student responses to these items in Section V of Student Evaluation Form A.

SECTION III:

Following are four questions concerning the students' overall evaluation of this course. Please indicate for each item how you would rate yourself or the course, and how you think the students rated you or the course (estimate of average student rating).

1. What is your overall impression concerning the quality of this course, given your objectives and expectations about the course?

YOUR RATING:	ESTIMATED AVERAGE STUDENT RATING:
Outstanding	Outstanding (1)
Good	Good (2)
Satisfactory	Satisfactory (3)
Poor	Poor (4)
Uncertain	Uncertain

Actual Average Student Rating (to be filled in after the estimate has been made): .....

2. How would you compare the overall quality of this course with that of other courses of a similar nature at this college?

YOUR RATING:	ESTIMATED AVERAGE STUDENT RATING:
One of the very best (Upper 10%)	One of the very best (1) (Upper 10%)
Above Average (Upper 10-30%)	Above Average (2) (Upper 10-30%)
Average (40-60%)	Average (3) (40-60%)
Below Average (Below 40%)	Below Average (4) (Below 40%)
Uncertain	Uncertain

Actual Average Student Rating (to be filled in after the estimate is made): .....

3. Compared to other courses of a similar nature at this college, how would you rate the overall level of difficulty in this course?

YOUR RATING:	ESTIMATED AVERAGE STUDENT RATING:
..... Very difficult	..... Very difficult (1)
..... Somewhat difficult	..... Somewhat difficult (2)
..... Average	..... Average (3)
..... Somewhat easy	..... Somewhat easy (4)
..... Very easy	..... Very easy (5)
..... Uncertain	..... Uncertain

Actual Average Student Rating (to be filled in after the estimate is made): .....

4. In comparison with other courses of a similar nature that are offered at this college, how would you rate the level of learning in this course?

YOUR RATING:	ESTIMATED AVERAGE STUDENT RATING:
..... A great deal more was learned than usual.	..... "I learned a great deal more than I usually do." (1)
..... More was learned than usual.	..... "I learned more than I usually do." (2)
..... The usual amount was learned.	..... "I learned about as much as I usually do." (3)
..... Less was learned than usual.	..... "I learned less than I usually do." (4)
..... Considerably less was learned than usual.	..... "I learned considerably less than I usually do." (5)
..... Uncertain	..... Uncertain

Actual Average Student Rating (to be filled in after the estimate is made): .....

Note the basic reasons for any significant discrepancies between your ratings, your estimated student ratings, and the actual student ratings. If possible, share these reasons with your colleagues and/or students, so that they might be validated, clarified, or expanded.

COUNCIL FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SMALL COLLEGES
INSTRUCTIONAL ASSESSMENT SYSTEM
PEER EVALUATION FORM

Course Number and Title: _____

Date Course was Observed: _____

Instructor's Name: _____ Observer's Name: _____

SECTION I: *General Evaluation*

Following are several sets of statements concerning specific aspects of the course that you just observed. Please indicate the extent to which you would agree or disagree with each statement concerning the instructor.

1 = strongly agree
2 = agree
3 = disagree
4 = strongly disagree
5 = uncertain or nonapplicable

I. *Structure and Goals*

_____ 1. The instructor clearly conveyed the purpose for each activity (lecture, discussion, and so forth) of the class period.

_____ 2. The stated purposes were consistently followed throughout the class period.

_____ 3. The class presentation seemed to be carefully planned and organized.

_____ 4. The various elements of the class period (for example, lecture, material written on blackboard, slides, handouts) were effectively integrated.

_____ 5. The class presentation built toward one or more basic principles or conclusions that the students seemed to understand clearly.

II. *Instructor-Student Rapport*

_____ 6. The instructor demonstrated fair and equal concern for all students attending the class.

_____ 7. The instructor answered questions in a straightforward and understandable manner.

_____ 8. The instructor encouraged and helped interaction among the students.

_____ 9. The instructor appeared to be open to the ideas, suggestions, and criticisms of all of the students in the course.

_____ 10. The students seemed to be genuinely receptive to the ideas of the instructor during this class period.

III. *Subject-Matter and Instruction*

11. The instructor conveyed an enthusiasm about the course and subject matter.
12. The instructor presented material that was appropriate for the level of the course and for the level of preparation of the students.
13. The course material was presented in a dull or repetitive manner.
14. The biases of the instructor were clearly and consistently conveyed during this class period.
15. The instructor demonstrated adequate knowledge of the subject matter being conveyed.
16. The instructor introduced the topic(s) of this class period in a manner that was both stimulating and relevant.
17. The transitions between topics were conducted in an effective manner.
18. The major points of this class period were reviewed by the instructor.
19. The instructor's questions could usually be answered just by remembering facts.
20. The instructor asked questions requiring opinion, previous knowledge, or thought.
21. Questions tended to be asked of individuals rather than the group as a whole.
22. The instructor used student answers and comments to encourage or bring other students into the discussion.
23. Questions were interspersed throughout the class period.
24. The students were generally attentive throughout the class period.
25. Special or supplementary materials (for example, handouts, slides, displays) were effectively managed by the instructor.

IV. *General*

26. I would recommend this course to students I am advising.
27. I personally found this class period to be interesting and informative.
28. I believe that I was able to fairly judge the nature and tenor of the teaching-learning process during this class period.

Comments: (to clarify or expand on any of your ratings)

SECTION II: *The Instructor*

Indicate for each word or phrase listed below the extent to which you think it accurately describes the instructor as you observed him performing in this course. Please use the following key in responding to these words and phrases:

1 = this word or phrase does not describe this instructor
2 = this word or phrase partially describes this instructor
3 = this word or phrase accurately describes this instructor
4 = uncertain or nonapplicable

..... Uses gestures	..... Flexible in response to students
..... Pauses occasionally	..... Too slow in making presentations
..... Moves about	..... Too fast in making presentations
..... Varies pitch and tone of voice	..... Too active
..... Uses language the students could understand	..... Not active enough
..... Sufficient eye contact with students	..... Nonverbally expressive
..... Clear presentation	..... Annoying mannerisms

SECTION III: *Teaching Strategies*

Several teaching strategies have been often found to be effective means of increasing student involvement, as well as student learning, in a variety of disciplines. Please read the brief descriptions of each strategy, then indicate the extent to which you observed this strategy being

employed during this class period. If possible, also provide concrete examples of each strategy as it was used during this class period.

---

1. *Setting the Stage:* the preparation of a class for the learning which is to follow, often through an analogy, a demonstration, or a leading or provoking question. This provides a common frame of reference between the instructor and the students and increases the interest of the students in the major theme or topic to be covered.

..... I did not observe stage setting.

..... I observed stage setting being used in a relatively unsuccessful manner.

..... I observed stage setting being successfully used.

EXAMPLE:

2. *Varying the Presentation:* verbal and/or nonverbal techniques for varying the mode of presentation to the students. These may be variations in interaction styles, movement, planned repetition, audio-visual materials, use of examples, and so forth.

..... I observed very little variation in presentation of materials.

..... I observed a moderate amount of variation.

..... I observed a large amount of variation.

EXAMPLE:

3. *Encouraging the Student:* the instructor encourages the participation of students by means of a smile, nod of the head, eye-contact, and so forth.

..... I observed very little encouragement of students.

..... I observed a moderate amount of encouragement.

..... I observed a large amount of encouragement.

EXAMPLE:

4. *Awareness of Student Attention:* an awareness on the instructor's part of student nonverbal behavior (facial information about boredom or interest, comprehension or puzzlement, and involvement or withdrawal).

..... The instructor did not seem to be aware of the level of student attention.

..... The instructor seemed to be moderately aware of student attention.

..... The instructor seemed to be fully aware of student attention.

EXAMPLE:

5. *Probing Questions:* the response of the instructor to superficial or preliminary answers or statements made by students. Probing requires the student to go beyond a one word response. Skillful probing techniques help the instructor both to bring more out of a student and to keep a classroom discussion interesting.

..... I did not observe any probing questions.

..... I observed a few probing questions (1-5).

..... I observed many probing questions (more than 5).

EXAMPLE:

6. *Higher-Order Questions:* questions which require a student to go beyond a factual or descriptive statement and to generalize, to relate facts in meaningful patterns, to compare and contrast concepts, or to make inferences. Higher order questions lead students to figure out answers rather than to remember them.

..... I did not observe any higher-order questions.

..... I observed a few higher-order questions (1-5).

..... I observed many higher-order questions (more than 5).

EXAMPLE:

7. *Divergent Questions:* open-ended questions, ones without a "right" answer, requiring students to use both concrete and abstract thinking and to determine for themselves an appropriate response. Students are urged to explore the problem in whatever direction they prefer. The emphasis is on creative, adventuristic thinking.

..... I did not observe any divergent questions.

..... I observed a few divergent questions (1-5).

..... I observed many divergent questions (more than 5).

EXAMPLE:

8. *Closure:* integrating the major points of a presentation, providing a link between the familiar and the new parts of the presentation, providing the students with a needed sense of achievement at the end of the presentation (or subsections of the presentation).

..... I did not observe closure being used.

..... I observed closure being used in a relatively unsuccessful manner.

..... I observed closure being successfully used.

EXAMPLE:

SECTION IV: *Final Comments*

Please answer the following open-ended questions. Try to be as specific as possible in responding to each question.

1. What part(s) of the class seemed to particularly enhance the learning process?

2. What specific suggestions would you make concerning how this particular class could have been improved?

COUNCIL FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SMALL COLLEGES
INSTRUCTIONAL ASSESSMENT SYSTEM
STUDENT EVALUATION FORM A:
General

Course Number and Title: _____

Instructor's Name: _____

SECTION I. *Student Information*

Following are four questions concerning you as a student. Please place a checkmark beside the appropriate category for each question.

---

1. *Year in School*

..... a) Freshman ..... c) Junior ..... e) Graduate
..... b) Sophomore ..... d) Senior ..... f) Other

2. *Major Area of Study*

..... a) Humanities
..... b) Arts
..... c) Social Sciences
..... d) Physical Sciences
..... e) Technology (Engineering, Computers, and so forth)
..... f) Pre-professional Training (Medicine, Law, Nursing, Education, and so forth)
..... g) Other .....

3. *Major Reason for Taking This Course*

..... a) Required
..... b) Advisor's Recommendation
..... c) Interesting Subject Matter
..... d) Easy Course
..... e) Teacher's Reputation
..... f) Other .....

4. *Expected Grade in This Course*

..... a) A ..... c) C ..... e) F ..... g) Other
..... b) B ..... d) D ..... f) Pass

SECTION II: *Overall Evaluation*

Following are four questions concerning your overall evaluation of the course. Please indicate your response to each question by placing a checkmark beside the appropriate category for each question.

---

5. What is your overall impression concerning the quality of this course, given your objectives and expectations about the course?

..... a) Outstanding
..... b) Good
..... c) Satisfactory
..... d) Poor
..... e) Uncertain

6. How would you compare the overall quality of this course with that of other courses of a similar nature that you have taken at this college?

..... a) One of the Very Best (upper 10%)
..... b) Above Average (upper 10-30%)
..... c) Average (40-60%)
..... d) Below Average (below 40%)
..... e) Uncertain

7. Compared to other courses of a similar nature at this college, how would you rate the overall level of difficulty in this course?

..... a) Very Difficult
..... b) Somewhat Difficult
..... c) Average
..... d) Somewhat Easy
..... e) Very Easy
..... f) Uncertain

8. In comparison with other courses of a similar nature that you have taken at this college, how would you rate your level of learning in this course?

..... a) I learned a great deal more than I usually do.
..... b) I learned more than I usually do.
..... c) I learned about as much as I usually do.
..... d) I learned less than I usually do.
..... e) I learned considerably less than I usually do.
..... f) Uncertain.

SECTION III: *Description of Instructor*

Indicate for each word or phrase listed below the extent to which you think it accurately

describes your instructor in this course. Please use the following in responding to these words and phrases:

1 = this word or phrase does not describe this instructor
2 = this word or phrase partially describes this instructor
3 = this word or phrase accurately describes this instructor
4 = uncertain or nonapplicable

..... Lenient
..... Stimulating
..... Well prepared
..... Accessible to students
..... Tolerant
..... Knowledgeable
..... Friendly
..... Considerate
..... Well-organized
..... Clear presentation
..... Consistent
..... Enthusiastic about subject matter
..... Expressive (variety in voice and nonverbal communication)
..... Varied instructional methods

SECTION IV: *Description of Course*

Please indicate for each word or phrase listed below the extent to which you think it accurately describes this course:

1 = this word or phrase does not describe this course
2 = this word or phrase partially describes this course
3 = this word or phrase accurately describes this course
4 = uncertain or nonapplicable

..... Interesting
..... Informative
..... Difficult
..... Thought provoking
..... Involving
..... Relevant
..... Useful
..... Well integrated
..... Clear direction
..... Builds on past courses

SECTION V: *Evaluation of Personal Learnings*

Please indicate the extent to which the following types of learning occurred for you in this course. Use the following scale to indicate the extent to which each description is applicable:

1 = a major type of learning in this course
2 = a minor type of learning in this course
3 = a peripheral type of learning in this course
4 = this type of learning did not occur in this course
5 = uncertain

a) *Factual Knowledge:* I learned some new terms, methods, information, and so forth.

b) *Skills-Training:* I learned how to perform a specific task, or how to fill a particular professional role.

c) *Principles:* I learned some new theories, generalizations, ways of organizing information.

d) *Application:* I learned how to use new information, concepts, and methods to solve current problems.

e) *Creativity:* I learned how to be more expressive in the use of a specific medium (words, paint, music, and so forth) or how to approach and solve problems in a new way.

f) *Appreciation:* I gained a greater sensitivity to specific intellectual, scientific, or artistic endeavors.

g) *Self-Understanding:* I have acquired a better sense of myself and/or my relationship with other people.

h) *Self-Management:* I have learned how to plan more effectively for and/or control my own personal and professional life.

SECTION VI: *Recommendations for Change*

Each of the statements listed below represents frequently stated recommendations from students concerning how they would like to see their courses changed. Please place a checkmark beside any statement that accurately reflects your own recommendations for change.

---

a) The work load should be lighter.

b) The work load should be heavier.

c) The course goals and objectives should be stated more clearly.

d) The course goals and objectives should be followed more consistently.

e) The examinations should more clearly reflect the course goals.

f) The examinations should demand less memorization and more thought.

g) The course should be more tightly structured.

h) The course should be more loosely structured.

i) The assignments should be clearer.

j) The instructor should exhibit more openness to critical or probing questions from students.

k) Students should have greater influence over the direction taken in this course.

l) The instructor should be more responsive to the dissatisfaction of students concerning the way the course is being taught.

m) The instructor should update the material he is presenting in the course.

n) The instructor should use new teaching methods.

o) The instructor should do more lecturing.

p) The instructor should allow students to speak more during class discussions.

q) The instructor should be more concerned with students who do not speak up in class.

r) The instructor should ramble around less when lecturing.

s) The instructor should speak more slowly when lecturing.

t) The physical setting (classroom, lecture hall, seminar room, and so forth) for this course should be changed.

u) The instructor should more clearly relate the content of this course to problems and issues that are of immediate concern to the students.

v) The instructor should plan for more discussion in this course.

w) The instructor should do less lecturing.

x) The instructor should use a more equitable and less subjective method of grading.

y) The instructor should allow fewer students into this course.

z) The instructor should find a new textbook for this course.

SECTION VII: *Additional Comments*

Please make any additional comments you think would be helpful in clarifying your ratings or in helping the instructor to identify areas in which the course might be improved.

COUNCIL FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SMALL COLLEGES
INSTRUCTIONAL ASSESSMENT SYSTEM
STUDENT EVALUATION FORM B:
Lecture Courses

Course Number and Title: _____

Instructor's Name: _____

Following are several sets of statements concerning specific aspects of this course. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by choosing one of the five alternative responses:

1 = strongly agree
2 = agree
3 = disagree
4 = strongly disagree
5 = uncertain or nonapplicable

I. *Instructor-Student Rapport*

..... 1. The instructor showed fair and equal concern for all students.
..... 2. The instructor expected high standards of performance from himself as well as the students.
..... 3. The instructor answered questions in a straightforward and understandable manner.
..... 4. The instructor encouraged individual help and discussion.
..... 5. The instructor was prompt in meeting class and in keeping appointments.
..... 6. Students were given an opportunity to ask questions about the lecture material.

II. *Subject Matter and Presentation of Material*

..... 7. The content of this course was valuable to me.
..... 8. The instructor seemed to be genuinely enthusiastic about the course and subject matter.
..... 9. Students discussed the lecture material outside of class.
..... 10. Lectures were well organized.
..... 11. It was obvious that the instructor had prepared for his lectures.
..... 12. The instructor presented material that was too advanced for the level of the course.
..... 13. The instructor's delivery was dull.
..... 14. The instructor frequently digressed from his lecture topic and dwelt on the irrelevant.
..... 15. It was easy to follow the lecture.
..... 16. Lectures were presented in such a way that it was easy to take notes.
..... 17. The lectures merely summarized the textbook(s).

18. The lecturer's voice was monotonous.
19. The instructor exhibited annoying mannerisms.
20. The lectures proved helpful when it came time for evaluation and grading.
21. The lectures were inclined to show the instructor's bias and did not provide various points of view.
22. The pace of the lectures was too rapid.

III. *Tests and Grading*

23. The tests were fair and objective.
24. The instructor provided an opportunity for the students to discuss the tests at a later time.
25. The tests were effectively integrated with the course content.
26. The expectations concerning performance standards for students were clearly specified at the start of the course.

Comments: (to clarify or expand on your ratings)

COUNCIL FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SMALL COLLEGES
INSTRUCTIONAL ASSESSMENT SYSTEM
STUDENT EVALUATION FORM C:
Seminar and Discussion Courses

Course Number and Title: _____

Instructor's Name: _____

Following are several sets of statements concerning specific aspects of this course. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by choosing one of five alternative responses:

1 = strongly agree
2 = agree
3 = disagree
4 = strongly disagree
5 = uncertain or nonapplicable

I. *Structure and Goals*

1. The size of this class was appropriate for effective student participation.
2. The instructor was open to the ideas, suggestions, and criticisms of the students.
3. The subject matter introduced in the course clearly and consistently reflected the course goals.
4. The learning objectives of the course were clarified by the instructor at the beginning of the course.
5. The learning objectives of the course were at least in part determined by the students.
6. My own learning objectives were achieved by the end of this course.

II. *Subject Matter and Instruction*

7. The instructor encouraged and helped interaction among the students.
8. The instructor presented and encouraged multiple viewpoints on controversial subjects.
9. The group frequently was side-tracked in its discussions.
10. The instructor was helpful to the group when it floundered during discussions.
11. The other students restricted my contribution to the discussion.
12. The instructor restricted my contribution to the discussion.
13. I learned a great deal from the other students.
14. I made significant contributions to the discussions in this course.
15. I benefited more from this seminar than I would have if it were a lecture-based course.
16. The instructor actually lectured rather than led discussions.

III. *Expectations and Responsibilities*

17. The course requirements were clearly defined.
18. I received fair recognition for the amount of work I performed.
19. The instructor stimulated and encouraged self-initiative.
20. Prior to entering the course, I was fully aware of seminar or small group discussion procedures.
21. More responsibility was expected of the students for their own learning in this course than in a lecture course.
22. Students were actively involved in planning for this course.

Comments: (to clarify or expand on any of your ratings)

COUNCIL FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SMALL COLLEGES
INSTRUCTIONAL ASSESSMENT SYSTEM
STUDENT EVALUATION FORM D:
Laboratory Courses

Course Number and Title: _____

Instructor's Name: _____

Following are several sets of statements concerning specific aspects of this course. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by choosing one of five alternative responses:

1 = strongly agree
2 = agree
3 = disagree
4 = strongly disagree
5 = uncertain or nonapplicable

I. *Structure and Goals*

1. The instructor clearly specified the objectives of the laboratory.
2. My own learning objectives for this laboratory have been achieved.
3. The content of the laboratory sessions has been highly relevant to the objectives of the course as a whole.
4. The number of students in this laboratory section has been appropriate for learning to occur.
5. The instructor clearly stated the objectives of each laboratory exercise.
6. The instructor was open to the ideas, suggestions, and criticisms of the students.

II. *Subject Matter and Instruction*

7. The instructor distributed directions and procedures for laboratories sufficiently in advance of the lab sessions.
8. The instructions for completing each lab session were clear.
9. The instructor provided sufficient opportunity for questions to be asked and for laboratory assistance.
10. The instructor demonstrated fundamental techniques in such a way that I could use them.
11. Special preparations, materials, or equipment were available on time.
12. The equipment was adequate and reliable.
13. Students were encouraged to conduct their own laboratory experiences.
14. There was sufficient opportunity to do creative and imaginative work in the laboratory.

15. I learned a great deal from the other students in the laboratory.
16. This laboratory was essential to my understanding of other segments of this course.

III. *Expectations and Evaluation*

17. I was given sufficient opportunity to demonstrate my knowledge and skills in conducting laboratory work.
18. The criteria for assessing my performance in this laboratory section were clearly stated and consistently employed.
19. The instructor did not expect me to spend more time in this course than I had originally anticipated.
20. I clearly understood before entering the course how much materials would cost.

Comments: (to clarify or expand on your ratings)

COUNCIL FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SMALL COLLEGES
INSTRUCTIONAL ASSESSMENT SYSTEM
STUDENT EVALUATION FORM E:
Studio Courses

Course Number and Title: _____

Instructor's Name: _____

Following are several sets of statements concerning specific aspects of this course. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by choosing one of five alternative responses:

1 = strongly agree
2 = agree
3 = disagree
4 = strongly disagree
5 = uncertain or nonapplicable

I. *Structure and Goals*

1. The instructor stated clear learning objectives for the studio experience.
2. The objectives were consistently followed throughout the course.
3. My own learning objectives for this course have been achieved.
4. The instructor was open to the ideas, suggestions, and criticisms of the students.
5. The number of students taking this studio course was appropriate for learning to occur.
6. The instructor clearly stated the objectives of each studio project.

II. *Subject Matter and Instruction*

7. The instructor was ready with necessary materials for studio periods.
8. Equipment was in good working order for studio periods.
9. Enough equipment was available for all students in this course.
10. The instructor justified to my satisfaction what he considered to be fundamental techniques.
11. It was clear throughout the course that newly learned procedures would be applicable to a final project or performance.
12. The instructor has encouraged the students in this course to be creative.
13. There was sufficient opportunity to do independent, creative work.
14. The instructor demonstrated fundamental techniques in such a way that I could use them.

III. *Expectations and Responsibilities*

15. The instructor did not expect me to spend more time in this course than I had originally anticipated.
16. I clearly understood before entering the course how much materials would cost.
17. I was given sufficient opportunity to demonstrate my knowledge and skills in completing a project.
18. The criteria for assessing my performance in this course were clearly stated and consistently employed.

Comments: (to clarify or expand upon your ratings)

INSTRUMENT NUMBER FOUR

TITLE: Instructional Development and Effectiveness Assessment (IDEA) System

SOURCE: Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development in Higher Education, Kansas State University

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: The Instructional Development and Effectiveness Assessment (IDEA) System is a diagnostic instrument for assessing instructional effectiveness and improving teaching which focuses on the individual objectives of each instructor. Because the IDEA system is concerned with the instructor's objectives, it can be used with very different types of courses and instructors. Essentially, the IDEA System uses student ratings on how well the students achieved the instructor's stated objectives to evaluate his effectiveness, and it uses student descriptions of teaching procedures to identify needed improvements.

In brief, the IDEA System provides the faculty member with the opportunity to identify his own teaching objectives for a particular course from a list of ten specified objectives, and then asks the students in that course to assess their progress on those objectives (items twenty-three through thirty-two on the IDEA instrument). The IDEA System also asks the students to describe the frequency of specific teaching procedures used by the faculty member in the classroom, which are then reported as relative strengths or weaknesses (items one through eighteen on the IDEA instrument).

In developing the IDEA instrument, correlations were established between the ten teaching objectives and one or more of the teaching procedures. When low ratings on the teaching objectives occur with low ratings on the relevant teaching procedures, then the teaching procedures which need attention are easily identified.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The IDEA System is a complex computerized approach to instructional evaluation and diagnosis. One of the basic forms has been included here, both to provide some sense of this system and to suggest questions and categories that can be incorporated into other simpler instruments. For further information about the IDEA System, contact the Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development in Higher Education.

STUDENT REACTIONS TO INSTRUCTION AND COURSES
SHORT FORM

By giving thoughtful and honest answers to these questions, you will help your instructor improve this course and his teaching procedures. Omit items which are not applicable to your instructor or this course.

PART I. Describe your instructor's teaching procedures by using the following code:
1 = Hardly Ever 2 = Occasionally
3 = Sometimes 4 = Frequently
5 = Almost Always

The Instructor:

1. Promoted teacher-student discussion (as opposed to mere responses to questions).
2. Found ways to help students answer their own questions.
3. Encouraged students to express themselves freely and openly.
4. Seemed enthusiastic about the subject matter.
5. Changed his approach to meet new situations.
6. Spoke with expressiveness and variety in tone of voice.
7. Demonstrated the importance and significance of his subject matter.
8. Made presentations which were dry and dull.
9. Made it clear how each topic fit into the course.
10. Explained the reasons for his criticisms of students' academic performance.
11. Encouraged student comments even when they turned out to be incorrect or irrelevant.
12. Summarized material in a manner which aided retention.
13. Stimulated students to intellectual effort beyond that required by most courses.
14. Stated clearly the objectives of the course.
15. Explained course material clearly, and explanations were to the point.
16. Related course material to real life situations.
17. Gave examinations which stressed unnecessary memorization.
18. Gave examination questions which were unreasonably detailed (picky).

PART II. On the next four questions, compare this course with others you have taken at this institution, using the following code:
1 = Much Less than Most Courses
2 = Less than Most 3 = About Average
4 = More than Most 5 = Much More than Most

The Course:

19. Amount of reading.
20. Amount of work in other (non-reading) assignments.
21. Difficulty of subject matter.
22. Degree to which the course hung together (various topics and class activities were related to each other).

PART III. Compare the progress you have made in this course with that made in other courses you have taken at this college or university, using the following code:
1 = Lowest 10% of Courses I have taken here
2 = Next 20% 3 = Middle 40%
4 = Next 20% 5 = Upper 10%

Your Progress:

23. Gaining factual knowledge (terminology, classifications, methods, trends).
24. Learning fundamental principles, generalizations, or theories.
25. Learning to apply course material to improve rational thinking, problem-solving and decision making.
26. Developing specific skills, competencies, and points of view needed by professionals in the field most closely related to this course.
27. Learning how professionals in this field go about the process of gaining new knowledge.
28. Developing creative capacities.
29. Developing a sense of personal responsibility (self-reliance, self-discipline).
30. Gaining a broader understanding and appreciation of intellectual-cultural activity (music, science, literature, etc.).
31. Developing skill in expressing myself orally or in writing.
32. Discovering the implications of the course material for understanding myself (interests, talents, values, etc.).

PART IV. Describe your personal attitudes and behavior in this course, using the following code:
1 = Definitely False 2 = More False than True
3 = In between 4 = More True than False
5 = Definitely True

Self-Rating:

33. I worked harder on this course than on most courses I have taken.
34. I had a strong desire to take this course.
35. I would like to take another class from this instructor.
36. As a result of taking this course, I have more positive feelings toward this field of study.

If your instructor has extra questions, answer them in the space designated on the Answer Form.

Your comments on how the instructor might improve this course or his teaching are invited; use the space provided.

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INSTRUMENT NUMBER FIVE

TITLE: Teaching Analysis by Students (TABS)

SOURCE: Clinic to Improve University Teaching, University of Massachusetts

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: The Teaching Analysis by Students (TABS) questionnaire has been developed as part of the diagnostic and training program currently underway at the University of Massachusetts' School of Education. Students are asked to respond to a variety of issues concerning their experience in the class; some items are descriptive, while others are evaluative. The faculty member whose class is using this instrument is also asked to take the first section of the questionnaire twice. The first time he is to rate his own performance on each item, the second time to predict how he thinks his students will rate him.

Not only does TABS produce ratings for each individual question but it also provides ratings for the twenty specific teaching skills or behaviors listed on "Definitions and TABS Items" by averaging together the responses to all the individual questions which measure that particular aspect of teaching. For instance, the first four questions measure the instructor's ability to establish a learning set; the average of the responses to each of these four questions will produce an indication of his ability to perform this particular teaching function.

Because of the computations involved, TABS is difficult to score by hand and should be computerized.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The University of Massachusetts' computer print-out for the TABS questionnaire produces ratings for each question and for each of the twenty teaching skills and behaviors measured in section one. Three figures are generated for each of these twenty items: (1) the instructor's rating of himself; (2) the instructor's prediction of how his students will rate him; and (3) the actual student ratings. Not only are these individual figures of value in themselves but also significant discrepancies between any of the ratings on an individual item may be useful information. Obviously, low ratings on items valued by the instructor may define an area for future development.

TEACHING ANALYSIS BY STUDENTS (TABS)

SECTION 1—*Teaching Skills and Behaviors*

In this questionnaire there are some statements concerning a variety of specific teaching skills and behaviors. Please read each statement carefully and then indicate the extent to which you feel your instructor needs improvement. Respond to each statement by selecting one of the following:

1. No improvement is needed (very good or excellent performance)
2. Little improvement is needed (generally good performance)
3. Improvement is needed (generally mediocre performance)
4. Considerable improvement is needed (generally poor performance)
5. Not a necessary skill or behavior for this course

Please make your decisions about the degree of improvement needed on the basis of what you think would be best for this particular course and your learning style. Try to consider each statement separately, rather than let your overall feelings about the instructor determine all the responses.

1. The instructor's explanation of *course* objectives
2. The instructor's explanation of the objectives for each class session and learning activity
3. The instructor's ability to arouse my interest when introducing an instructional activity
4. The instructor's explanation of the work expected from each student
5. The instructor's ability to maintain a clear relationship between the course content and the course objectives
6. The instructor's skill in clarifying the relationships among the various topics treated in the course
7. The instructor's skill in making clear the distinction between major and minor topics
8. The instructor's skill in adjusting the rate at which new ideas are covered so that the material can be followed and understood
9. The instructor's ability to clarify material which needs elaboration
10. The instructor's speaking skills
11. The instructor's ability to ask easily understood questions
12. The instructor's ability to ask thought-provoking questions
13. The instructor's ability to answer questions clearly and concisely
14. The instructor's overall effectiveness as a discussion leader
15. The instructor's ability to get students to participate in class discussions
16. The instructor's skill in facilitating discussions *among students* as opposed to discussions only between the instructor and students
17. The instructor's ability to wrap things up before moving on to a new topic
18. The instructor's ability to tie things together at the end of a class
19. The instructor's explanation of precisely how my performance is to be evaluated
20. The instructor's ability to design evaluation procedures which are consistent with course objectives
21. The instructor's performance in periodically informing me of my progress

22. The instructor's selection of materials and activities which are thought-provoking
23. The instructor's ability to select materials and activities which are not too difficult
24. The instructor's provision of *variety* in materials and activities
25. The instructor's ability to use a variety of teaching techniques
26. The instructor's demonstration of creativity in teaching methods
27. The instructor's management of day-to-day administrative details
28. The instructor's flexibility in offering options for individual students
29. The instructor's ability to take appropriate action when students appear to be bored
30. The instructor's availability for personal consultation
31. The instructor's ability to relate to people in ways which promote mutual respect
32. The instructor's maintenance of an atmosphere which actively encourages learning
33. The instructor's ability to inspire excitement or interest in the content of the course
34. The instructor's ability to relate the subject matter to other academic disciplines and real world situations
35. The instructor's willingness to explore a variety of points of view
36. The instructor's ability to get students to challenge points of view raised in the course
37. The instructor's performance in helping me to explore the relationship between my personal values and the course content
38. The instructor's performance in making me aware of value issues within the subject matter

SECTION II—*Other Information*

Please mark the appropriate response for each of the following items beside the correct statement number on the answer sheet.

39. Class:
    (1) freshman
    (2) sophomore
    (3) junior
    (4) senior
    (5) graduate student
40. Sex:
    (1) male
    (2) female
41. Grade point average:
    (1) less than 1.50 (lowest)
    (2) 1.50-2.49
    (3) 2.50-2.99
    (4) 3.00-3.49
    (5) 3.50-4.00 (highest)
42. In terms of the directions my life is taking, this course is:
    (1) relevant
    (2) somewhat relevant
    (3) irrelevant
    (4) I am unsure

43. In this course I am learning:
    (1) a great deal
    (2) a fair amount
    (3) very little
    (4) I am unsure

44. As a result of this course, my attitude toward the instructor is:
    (1) becoming more positive
    (2) becoming more negative
    (3) unchanged

45. As a consequence of participating in this course, my attitude toward the subject matter is:
    (1) becoming more positive
    (2) becoming more negative
    (3) unchanged

46. I would prefer that this course:
    (1) become more structured or organized
    (2) become less structured or organized
    (3) maintain about the present level of structure

47. Which of the following descriptions of student learning styles most nearly approximates your own? (choose only one)
    (1) I like to think for myself, work alone, and focus on learning personally relevant content.
    (2) I prefer highly structured courses and will focus on learning what is required.
    (3) I try to get the "most out of classes," and like sharing my ideas with others and getting involved in class activities.
    (4) I am competitive, concerned about getting good grades, and try to learn material so that I can perform better than others.
    (5) I am generally turned off as a student, uninterested in class activities, and don't care to work with teachers or other students.

48. About how much time and effort have you put into this course compared to other courses of equal credit?
    (1) much more
    (2) somewhat more
    (3) about the same amount
    (4) somewhat less
    (5) much less

49. Generally, how valuable have you found the assigned readings in terms of their contribution to your learning in this course?
    (1) very valuable
    (2) fairly valuable
    (3) not very valuable
    (4) there have been no assigned readings

50. Overall, I would rate this course as:
    (1) excellent
    (2) good
    (3) mediocre
    (4) poor

DEFINITIONS AND TABS ITEMS

I. *Establishing a Learning Set:* the instructor's ability to create in students a cognitive and affective predisposition to engage in a given learning activity (questions 1-4)

II. *Logical Organization:* the instructor's skill in arranging and presenting course content and learning activities so that students understand the relationships among the various topics, ideas, issues, activities, etc., covered in the course (questions 5-7)

III. *Pacing:* the instructor's skill in introducing new topics or activities at an appropriate rate and in spending enough but not too much time developing those topics or activities (question 8)

IV. *Elaboration:* the instructor's skill in clarifying or developing an idea or topic (question 9)

V. *Expression:* the instructor's skills in using verbal (voice tone, inflection, pitch, emphasis) and nonverbal (facial expressions, gestures, body movements) techniques to increase the power and meaning of his communication (question 10)

VI. *Asking Questions:* the instructor's skill in using various questioning techniques at appropriate times and for a variety of instructional purposes (questions 11 and 12)

VII. *Responding to Questions:* the instructor's ability to answer questions clearly and concisely and with an appropriate emotional tone (question 13)

VIII. *Student Participation:* the instructor's skills in facilitating student participation in class discussions and in leading those discussions in fruitful directions (questions 14-16)

IX. *Closure:* the instructor's abilities to integrate the major points of a lesson or unit of instruction, to establish a cognitive link between the familiar and the new, and to provide students with a feeling of accomplishment (questions 17 and 18)

X. *Evaluation:* the instructor's skills in specifying the criteria for evaluation, in designing valid and reliable evaluation procedures, and in providing adequate feedback to students about their progress (questions 19-21)

XI. *Level of Challenge:* the instructor's skills in selecting course objectives, content, and activities which challenge students' conceptual abilities but which are not too difficult for students to master (questions 22 and 23)

XII. *Methods and Materials:* the instructor's ability to use various teaching methods effectively and to provide variation in cognitive behaviors, classroom activities, and instructional materials (questions 24 and 25)

XIII. *Creativity:* the instructor's ability to use creative and imaginative teaching strategies (question 26)

XIV. *Management:* the instructor's skill in performing the organizational and administrative tasks in providing learning experiences for students (question 27)

XV. *Flexibility/Individualization:* the instructor's ability to deal with differing interests and abilities among students in his/her class and to respond constructively to student suggestions, criticisms, comments about his/her teaching strategies (questions 28-30)

XVI. *Interpersonal Relations:* the instructor's ability to relate to people in ways which promote mutual respect and rapport (question 31)

XVII. *Learning Environment:* the instructor's ability to create and maintain an atmosphere conducive to student involvement (overt and/or covert) and learning (question 32)

XVIII. *Enthusiasm/Inspiration:* the instructor's abilities to conduct and direct learning activities in a dynamic manner and to stimulate interest and excitement in course content and activities (question 33)

XIX. *Perspective:* the instructor's ability to establish a frame of reference for concepts, issues, ideas, etc., and to expand that frame of reference to include an increasingly wider variety of viewpoints, implications, and relationships (questions 34-36)

XX. *Value Context:* the instructor's abilities: (a) to identify explicitly his/her own values and to clarify the implications of those values in the selection and interpretation of subject matter; (b) to explore other values and their implications as they relate to his/her subject matter, and (c) to help students clarify their values and recognize the implications of those values for their personal and professional conduct (questions 37 and 38)

INSTRUMENT NUMBER SIX

TITLE: Teacher and Course Evaluation

SOURCE: Unknown

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This is a useful, brief evaluation instrument which may be used either by an individual instructor or by an entire institution. Based as it is on multiple-choice questions, this instrument can be easily scored. Even as short as it is, it does cover the essential aspects of faculty performance. Longer and more sophisticated instruments may not necessarily provide information that is any more valid or useful than that generated by this form.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This instrument is self-explanatory. Some instructors, for various reasons, may want to eliminate one or more of the last three questions concerning course grade, grade point average, and sex. Students are encouraged to add written comments about the course on the back of the form.

TEACHER AND COURSE EVALUATION

Name of course: _____

Name of teacher: _____

Your class: Freshman ____ Sophomore ____ Junior ____ Senior ____ Other ____

Circle number: poor—1 below average—2 average—3 good—4 excellent—5 not applicable—0.

1. Organization of course	Plans and organizes	1	2	3	4	5	0	(1)
2. Course content	Emphasizes important ideas	1	2	3	4	5	0	(2)
3. Lecture content	Complements (adds to) material in text	1	2	3	4	5	0	(3)
4. Clear assignments		1	2	3	4	5	0	(4)
5. Useful assignments		1	2	3	4	5	0	(5)
6. Length of assignments		1	2	3	4	5	0	(6)
7. Fairness of test questions	Important aspects of course covered	1	2	3	4	5	0	(7)
8. Spacing between tests		1	2	3	4	5	0	(8)
9. Length of tests		1	2	3	4	5	0	(9)
10. Text		1	2	3	4	5	0	(10)
11. Use of visual aids, etc.		1	2	3	4	5	0	(11)
12. Ability to get information across	Adjusts to level of student comprehension; explanations clear	1	2	3	4	5	0	(12)
13. Class preparation	Comes to class well prepared	1	2	3	4	5	0	(13)
14. Interest and enthusiasm	Stimulates thinking. Creates desire to learn. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	0	(14)
15. Speech delivery	Speaks clearly. Students can hear and understand	1	2	3	4	5	0	(15)
16. Class discussion	Promotes interesting discussions; stimulates questions	1	2	3	4	5	0	(16)
17. Tolerance	Encourages independent thought; respects other points of view	1	2	3	4	5	0	(17)
18. Accessibility	Available for outside help	1	2	3	4	5	0	(18)
19. Efficiency	Prompt in returning papers	1	2	3	4	5	0	(19)
20. Grading, strictness	Too severe or too easy	1	2	3	4	5	0	(20)
21. Grading, fairness		1	2	3	4	5	0	(21)
22. Teacher's overall rank compared to others you have had	90-100%—5 70-90%—4 30-70%—3 10-30%—2 1-10%—1	1	2	3	4	5	0	(22)
23. General value of course	Rate same as above	1	2	3	4	5	0	(23)

Your approximate present grade in course—A ____ B ____ C ____ D ____ E ____ F ____ I ____

Your accumulative G.P.A. ____

Sex: Male ____ Female ____

Comments: For comments on any of these categories or another question or suggestion, use back of this sheet. Comments are most welcome, good or otherwise.

Chapter Four

Instructional Observation and Diagnosis

College and university teaching is one of the most observed and yet at the same time one of the least analyzed activities in which a professional can engage. In an entire career of teaching a faculty member may never receive an objective, impartial description of what is happening in his classes, yet without this information it is unrealistic to expect him to undertake any logical steps toward improvement. Classroom observation and diagnosis is one way of providing this needed information. Indeed, over the past five years instructional diagnosis has become a recognized component of faculty development, and diagnostic programs have been established at institutions such as the University of Massachusetts, the University of Idaho, and the University of Cincinnati. The purpose of this chapter is to describe how a faculty development program might incorporate a diagnostic service in its activities, as well as to offer several instruments that have proven useful to diagnostic programs.

A. Establishing a Diagnostic Service

Perhaps the most effective way of including diagnostic services in a faculty development program is to establish a diagnostic team. A number of very specific skills are needed to carry out an effective diagnostic effort, and a team of people working together on a regular basis is more likely to develop those skills than would an informal and less structured group. The size of a diagnostic service will, of course, depend on the size of the campus on which it is to operate. At a school of under one thousand students, a diagnostic team could well consist of one or two faculty and a few students, all of whom might be giving only a few hours a week to this work. On campuses of three to eight thousand students, on the other hand, instructional diagnosis is probably most effectively conducted by a six to twelve member team of faculty and students, with perhaps one or more of the faculty having some release time for their diagnostic work.

Both faculty and students should be part of the diagnostic team. Although faculty members often do not have extensive time to devote to volunteer efforts, it is sometimes possible to have their administration acknowledge work with the service as the equivalent of a major committee assignment, thus providing both time and recognition. During the early stages of establishing a team it is particularly important to involve faculty as team members, as diagnostic information from students will probably not be immediately acceptable to many faculty. A faculty member on the team can also bring a professional perspective to bear on the diagnostic relationship, since, as an instructor himself, he can empathize with his colleagues' problems. Furthermore, if several of the faculty members on the diagnostic staff are not affiliated with the behavioral sciences or education, they are more likely to be accepted by faculty outside those fields. A chemist, electrical engineer, or historian is not burdened with the jargon-ridden language the behavioral sciences are inclined to use. Perhaps the faculty member will even be acquainted with the subject matter taught by the observed instructor, which might then make possible a wider range of comments about the instructor's performance. Finally, the team may be more positively received if visible members are identified as being neutral with reference to campus and national politics, as being objective and empirically oriented, and as being educationally moderate.

In spite of the need to involve faculty as members of a diagnostic service, students can be an important and even central part of the team. Although students are often as pressed for time as their professors, it is possible either to pay them a modest amount or to give them academic credit, perhaps on an independent study basis, for their work with the team. Certainly the skills that must be learned to become an effective diagnostician are worthy of academic credit.

Once the student has been trained to be an effective diagnostician and instructional consultant, he can be a valuable resource to the instructor. Students can and often do bring a unique point of view to classroom observation that can not be supplied by another faculty member. As an instructor begins to receive helpful and descriptive information about his teaching from a student diagnostician, he finds himself in a situation where he is learning from a student or, perhaps better, in which he is working with a student as a colleague on a mutual problem. Confronted with this possible change of roles, many instructors may begin to alter their overall attitudes toward students and, more generally, their conceptualization of the learning process.

Interesting and complex qualities and skills are needed by the instructional diagnostician. He should not be exclusively a technician. Rather, he should be a consultant experienced in the use of interpersonal skills, as well as in information gathering and analysis. The diagnostician must be flexible in adapting standard instruments and procedures to the particular needs of the instructor. Contracting skills are essential in assessing what an instructor wants, as are diagnostic skills that enable him to collect valid information. Finally, he must command the skill of a counselor or guide; he must be able to know how and when to present his information so that it is useful.

B. The Three Phases of Instructional Observation and Diagnosis

Instructional diagnosis consists of three primary activities, each of which is essential to any consulting process.[1] These three activities are contracting, information collection and analysis, and information feedback; each should be considered with some care.

1. Contracting

The first step in a diagnostic sequence involves the establishment of a contract between the instructor and the consulting team. The instructor should determine what type of information concerning his teaching he wishes to receive, while the consulting team must decide if this type of information can be collected, given its own limits in time, money, and expertise. The mutually agreed upon areas of information form the basis of a contract between the instructor and the diagnostician. Without this contracting phase, a diagnostic team is forced to make often ill-founded assumptions about what the instructor wants or needs. Furthermore, if the instructor is not involved in decisions concerning the type of information that will be collected, he is not likely to sense any "ownership" for either the process of collecting the information or for the information itself. He is consequently more likely to either dismiss or resist this information when it is presented to him.

Initially, an instructor will often choose to receive information about areas in which he is moderately competent. Such selectivity is productive, for areas which are highly threatening are probably also areas in which little initial learning will actually take place. Once an instructor has received and made use of information in less threatening areas, he will perhaps be inclined to accept information which may be potentially more threatening.

2. Information Collection and Analysis

While each diagnostic contract must be tailor-made for the instructor who requests the service, some basic instruments should be available, and members of the team should have a grasp of some basic conceptual categories. The following items should be part of a diagnostic teams' repertoire: (a) Observational instruments that are related to such basic microteaching categories as questioning skills, set induction, and closure[2] should be available (see Instruments Number Seven, Eight, and Nine). These instruments, used primarily in traditional courses, may be directly linked with a microteaching program (see Chapter Five). (b) Interaction analysis instruments should be available to the diagnostic staff. Ideally, the team should be trained in the use of several different analytic tools, like the Flanders Interaction Analysis System (Instrument Number Ten) and the Reciprocal Categories System.[3] Additionally, the basic Bales Interaction Process Analysis[4] should be available for use. (c) A variety of student evaluation instruments (see Chapter Three) should be available. If necessary, new instruments may be developed to assess students' attitudes toward issues not covered on more standard forms.

(d) The diagnostic team should be trained in the collection of information from both large and small groups. Members might use a force-field analysis[5] to define aspects of a classroom that help or hinder movement toward some specific instructional goal. In conducting this analysis, the team might interview members of the class, either individually or in a group, concerning their perceptions of these forces. With advanced training, a diagnostic team could conduct more complex inter-group (teacher-student)[6] or even large-group[7] information collection procedures. (e) For use in instructional settings outside the classroom, the diagnostic team should be prepared to develop a series of "field-instruments" related to small group functioning (seminar groups, project teams, "buzz" groups, and so forth). Similar instruments should be developed for observing students in off-campus placements, and students and faculty in advising settings. Instruments to diagnose small group functions are available in abundance.[8] The team need only choose or redesign tools related to issues like leadership styles, communication patterns, group norms, and group roles. Instruments which can be used to assess field settings, especially instruments which measure actual behavior rather than attitudes about behavior, are less readily available. A diagnostic team might quite profitably look to some of the new performance-based teacher education programs for guidance.

(f) Finally, a diagnostic team should be able to produce a verbatim transcript of a classroom, seminar, or advising session and/or an audio tape or video tape of an instructional period. The information gained from a replay is, in and of itself, helpful to the instructor, especially if accompanied by more condensed, descriptive data. The major problem associated with the use of transcriptions and audio or video tapes is the richness of the information, and, consequently, an instructor who makes use of this data should go through it slowly and carefully. The primary advantage of this type of information is its almost totally nonevaluative character. When dealing with a highly defensive faculty member, or when first offering its services, a diagnostic team should make rather extensive use of this procedure. In addition, the written transcript or video tape can prove quite valuable in the training of a diagnostic team. Furthermore, these recordings can be of assistance to a diagnostic team member who may not be able to record all necessary observations during the actual class, seminar, or advising session.

3. Information Feedback

Change processes are usually quite subtle and require an interpersonal sensitivity to the

strengths and weaknesses of the instructor, as well as to areas about which he might feel threatened. Interpersonal skills are of primary importance at this point.

In most instances, a written report should be presented to the instructor within two or three weeks after a series of observations has been completed; out of date information is practically worthless. The report should be brief, with all major conclusions carefully documented and based on observations and analysis that can be clearly articulated and justified. Jargon should be kept at a minimum; moderate informality is usually effective. The self-esteem of the instructor must be preserved throughout the report.

The written report should be followed by a meeting in which the report is thoroughly discussed. Verbatim transcripts, audio tapes and/or video tapes may be presented at this time to justify or illustrate conclusions reached by the diagnostic team. In the early stages of a specific diagnostic program, the meeting may consist almost exclusively of a review of these recordings.

The sequence of contracting, information collection and analysis, and information feedback will often be repeated. The faculty member who has gone through one sequence may wish to recontract for information of a different type or for information of greater depth in some specific area. The diagnostic procedure will often lead the instructor to consider further instructional training, new instructional methods or technologies, and ultimately, perhaps, new designs for the curriculum of his department. These newly emerging concerns should be supported by the diagnostic team. The team members should also be able to offer the instructor specific suggestions as to where appropriate assistance can be obtained. Without follow-up resources, the instructor who has received the diagnosis is likely to become disillusioned with the entire diagnostic procedure.

Time and effort are obviously needed to establish an effective diagnostic team. Once established, and with proper back-up support this team can be one of the most important and most successful components of a comprehensive faculty development program.

NOTES:

[1] R. Lippett, J. Watson, and B. Westley, *Dynamics of Planned Change* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1958).

[2] Dwight Allen and Kevin Ryan, *Microteaching* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969), pp. 15-26.

[3] Richard L. Ober, Ernest L. Bentley, and Edith Miller, *Systematic Observation of Teaching: An Interaction Analysis-Instructional Strategy Approach* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1971), pp. 37-86.

[4] Robert F. Bales, *Interaction Process Analysis: A Method for the Study of Small Groups* (Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1950).

[5] Kurt Levin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics," *Human Relations*, 1 (1947), 5-41.

[6] R. R. Blake and J. S. Mouton, *Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development* (Houston: Gulf, 1968).

[7] Richard Beckhard, "The Confrontation Meeting," *Harvard Business Review*, 45 (April, 1967), 149-155.

[8] See, for example, Robert Fox, Margaret Barron Luszter, and Richard Schmuck, *Diagnosing Classroom Learning Environments* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1966); Edgar H. Schein, *Process Observation: Its Role in Organizational Development* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969); and Richard A. Schmuck and others, *Handbook of Organization Development in Schools* (Palo Alto, Calif.: National Press Books, 1972).

INSTRUMENT NUMBER SEVEN

TITLE: Observation of Presentation Skills

SOURCE: Adapted from a similar instrument developed by Wayne R. Hager, University of Idaho

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Although the manner of a lecturer's presentation will vary depending both on the nature of the course and on the instructor's own teaching style, certain characteristics of effective lectures can be identified. This instrument provides for the observation of a lecturer's set induction, introduction, stimulus variation, closure, organization, and use of visual aids.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The primary purpose of this instrument is to provide a guide to the observation and analysis of the instructor's presentation skills. Remember that you are concerned specifically with conducting an objective appraisal of the class; therefore, disregard any preconceived opinions regarding the instructor, subject matter, or previously observed class periods. In order for your analysis to be meaningful it is imperative that you present specific examples to justify all of your comments and opinions. First, review the descriptions of the basic skills described on the following pages prior to the start of the class period; second, observe the class and document examples of the various skills. Finally, as soon as possible after the class, take about half an hour to summarize your observation and analysis of the instructor's presentation skills.

OBSERVATION OF PRESENTATION SKILLS

SET INDUCTION: Set induction is more than an introduction; it is the preparation of a class for the learning which is to follow, often through an analogy, a demonstration, or a leading or provoking question. Examples: a lecture on British attitudes toward the American Revolution might begin with an analogy drawn from the Vietnam War; a chemistry class might begin with a spectacular demonstration of the process to be studied that period; a discussion of genetic differences between the sexes might begin with a vote on the class's attitudes towards the Women's Liberation Movement.

INTRODUCTION: This is the presentation, usually in a factual and objective manner, of an over-view of the material, activities, goals, and objectives planned for the particular class period.

ORGANIZATION: This is the ability of the instructor to present the material of the class in a clear and logical manner. Effective organization is usually characterized by a clear introduction, smooth transitions from topic to topic, clear distinctions between major and minor topics, occasional summaries, and clear outlines.

STIMULUS VARIATION: This is the ability to vary the pattern of instruction, which includes such elements as the instructor's movement around the classroom, his gestures, his voice level, and his ability to draw attention to important points.

VISUAL AIDS: These may include everything from the instructor's use of the blackboard to audio and video recordings.

CLOSURE: Closure is a way of summarizing and integrating the major points of a lecture, demonstration, or class discussion. It acts as a link between the familiar and the new and provides students with a sense of completeness and achievement.

OTHER COMMENTS OR OBSERVATIONS:

INSTRUMENT NUMBER EIGHT

TITLE: Observation of Questioning Skills

SOURCE: Adapted from a similar instrument developed by Wayne R. Hager, University of Idaho

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: An important part of teaching is asking questions. Effective questions can help the instructor measure the level of understanding in the class at any given moment, can stimulate interest and attention, and can excite active and eager class participation. Threatening, narrow, or misleading questions, however, can often have the opposite effect. An examination of the kinds of questions an instructor asks, therefore, may often be an important step in increasing his effectiveness.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The primary purpose of this instrument is to provide a guide to the observation of an instructor's questioning skills. Remember that you are concerned specifically with conducting an objective appraisal of the class; therefore, disregard any preconceived opinions regarding the instructor, subject matter, or previously observed class periods. In order for your analysis to be meaningful it is imperative that you present specific examples to justify all of your comments and opinions. First, review the descriptions of the basic skills described on the following pages prior to the start of the class period; second, observe the class and document examples of the various skills. Finally, as soon as possible after the class, take about half an hour to summarize your observation and analysis of the instructor's questioning skills.

OBSERVATION OF QUESTIONING SKILLS

LOWER ORDER QUESTIONS: These questions generally have a "right" answer; they require the student to recall specific information and respond in a direct, factual manner.

HIGHER ORDER QUESTIONS: This questioning skill requires a student to go beyond a factual or descriptive statement. The student must generalize, relate facts in meaningful patterns, and compare and contrast concepts or make inferences.

PROBING QUESTIONS: These are specific questions an instructor uses in response to perhaps superficial answers or statements from students. Skillful probing requires that students go beyond a one-word response. These techniques help the student to explore and develop his own ideas and answers.

FREQUENCY: How frequently did the instructor ask questions? Did the questions come at particular points in the class or were they part of the broader presentation? How many questions were higher order questions? Lower order? Probing?

OTHER COMMENTS OR OBSERVATIONS:

INSTRUMENT NUMBER NINE

TITLE: Observation of Instructor's Ability to Increase Student Participation

SOURCE: Adapted from a similar instrument developed by Wayne R. Hager, University of Idaho

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Many instructors and perhaps even more students value classroom participation, but many times what started out to be an involving discussion ends up a teacher monologue. This instrument provides for the observation of three techniques which the instructor can use that frequently result in greater student participation: reinforcement, recognizing attending behavior, and use of silence and non-verbal cues.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The purpose of this instrument is to provide a guide to the observation and analysis of the instructor's skill in creating student participation. Remember that you are concerned specifically with conducting an objective appraisal of the class; therefore, disregard any preconceived opinions regarding the instructor, subject matter, or previously observed class periods. In order for your analysis to be meaningful it is imperative that you present specific examples to justify all of your comments and opinions. First, review the descriptions of the basic skills described on the following pages prior to the start of the class period; second, observe the class and document examples of the various skills. Finally, as soon as possible after the class, take about half an hour to summarize your observation and analysis of the instructor's ability to increase student participation.

OBSERVATION OF INSTRUCTOR'S ABILITY TO INCREASE STUDENT PARTICIPATION

VERBAL REINFORCEMENT: Instructors who reinforce student responses experience increased student participation. Look for various examples of positive verbal reinforcement: words like "Fine," "Good," and "Excellent" and phrases that indicate interest in the student's ideas, such as "Can you tell us more about that?" or "That's very interesting. How did you arrive at that conclusion?"

SILENCE AND NON-VERBAL CUES: Facial cues (smiles, frowns, a serious or puzzled look), body movements (like moving toward the student), head movements (nods and so forth), and gestures (pointing to a particular student or from student to student) all are ways an instructor can use non-verbal messages to direct a class discussion without intruding on it himself. Even silence can be creative. To what extent does the instructor use non-verbal cues in leading the class discussion?

RECOGNIZING ATTENDING BEHAVIOR: When an instructor becomes sensitive to the various verbal and non-verbal messages students send that indicate their level of interest, comprehension, and involvement, he is in a position to effect changes in their attention. First, does the class appear to be attending to the instructor or are there instances of such non-attending behavior as restlessness, random conversation among the students, reading material not part of the class work, or even sleeping? Second, does the instructor seem aware of significant non-attending behavior? Does he change the pace of his lecture as the result of restlessness, maintain eye contact with the class, or call on specific students who may not be paying attention? Does he ask the class about their sense of what he has said if they appear confused? If the non-attending behavior becomes widespread, does he confront the issue more directly?

OTHER COMMENTS:

INSTRUMENT NUMBER TEN

TITLE: Flanders Interaction Analysis: A Modification

SOURCE: Developed by Wayne R. Hager, University of Idaho, from an instrument originally presented in Edmund J. Amidon and Ned A. Flanders, *The Role of the Teacher in the Classroom* (Minneapolis: Association for Productive Teaching, 1967).

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: The Flanders system of interaction analysis provides for the observation and analysis of verbal behavior in the classroom. Initially, this system divides verbal behavior into two categories, teacher talk and student talk, with a third added to account for behavior that cannot be included in either of the first two.

The first category, teacher talk, is then further classified as either direct or indirect. "This classification," Amidon and Flanders write, "gives central attention to the amount of freedom the teacher grants to the student. In a given situation . . . a teacher has a choice. He can be direct, minimizing the freedom of the student to respond, or he can be indirect, maximizing the freedom of the student to respond. His choice, conscious or unconscious, depends upon many factors, among which are his perceptions of the classroom interaction and the goals of the particular learning situation" (p. 6). Finally, both direct and indirect teacher influence and student talk are further divided into specific and mutually exclusive categories, as summarized in the diagram on page 103. Together, Amidon and Flanders maintain, these categories "are totally inclusive of all verbal interaction occurring in the classroom" (p. 7).

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: After several minutes of becoming accustomed to the general pattern of the classroom, the observer begins recording the interaction by writing down every three seconds the category number that corresponds to the verbal behavior taking place in the classroom at that moment. The numbers are recorded in a column at the rate of about twenty per minute; an extensive period of observation will hence produce several columns of numbers. Marginal notes may be made to record the kind of class activity taking place; double lines are drawn and a notation made when a significant change takes place in the configuration of the classroom. The observer stops recording when the class is no longer working as a whole group but is engaged in such activities as small group discussions, reading, and test taking.

A number of guidelines have been developed to assist the observer using this system:

1. When not certain in which of two or more categories a statement belongs, choose the category that is numerically farthest from Category 5.
2. If the primary tone of the teacher's behavior has been consistently direct or consistently indirect, do not shift into the opposite classification unless a clear indication of shift is given by the teacher.
3. The observer must not be concerned with his own biases or with the teacher's intent.
4. If more than one category occurs during the three-second interval, then all categories used in that interval are recorded; therefore, record each change in category. If no change occurs within three seconds, repeat that category number.

5. If a student begins talking after another student (without the teacher's talking), a zero is inserted between the 7's, 8's, or 9's to indicate the change of student.

These and other more specific guidelines are discussed in Amidon and Flanders, pages 24-30.

The data collected from the Flanders interaction analysis can be used in two ways. First, the columns of numbers can be examined to see if particular patterns of interaction emerge. For example, it would probably be significant for an instructor who was having some difficulty leading a class discussion to discover a repeated pattern of lecture (5's), narrow questions (3's), direct student response (7's), and criticism (6's). Second, each interaction can be placed in a matrix from which the observer can calculate such things as the percent of interactions in particular categories, the amount of direct versus indirect control exercised by the instructor, and the amount and nature of student talk. Detailed instructions for the use of this matrix are included in Amidon and Flanders, pages 31 and following.

CATEGORIES FOR A MODIFIED FLANDERS INTERACTION ANALYSIS

Teacher Talk	Indirect Influence	1. Accepts feeling or praises: accepts and clarifies the feelings of students in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Praises and gives recognition to the student. 2. Encourages or accepts ideas of students: clarifies, builds, or develops ideas suggested by a student. As teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to category 5. 3. Asks narrow questions: asks questions to which the general nature of the response can be predicted. 4. Asks broad questions: asks questions which are thought provoking or which require expression of opinion, attitude, or feeling.
	Direct Influence	5. Lecturing: gives facts or opinions about content or procedures; expresses his own ideas, asks rhetorical questions. 6. Criticizing or giving directions: statements intended to change student behavior from a nonacceptable to acceptable pattern; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self-reference; directive statements which serve to show the instructor's superiority.
Student Talk		7. Direct student response: elicited talk by students in response to narrow questions; highly predictable responses; negative responses such as "I don't know"; unison responses. 8. Indirect student response: student talk of a broad nature; student opinion or judgment. 9. Spontaneous student participation: student talk not solicited by the instructor.
		10. Administrative: directed activities, quizzes, distribution of papers, reading of announcements. 11. Silence: pauses, short periods of silence. 12. Confusion: periods of confusion in which communication can not be understood by the observer.

References and Further Readings:

The observation of teaching skills is based on Dwight Allen and Kevin Ryan's *Microteaching* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969). In addition to the sources referenced either in the text or in relationship to Instrument Number Ten, the following books are recommended: Ned A. Flanders, *Interaction Analysis in the Classroom: A Manual for Observers* (rev. ed., Ann Arbor: University of Michigan School of Education, 1964); Edgar F. Borgatta and Betty Crowther, *A Workbook for the Study of Social Interaction Processes* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965); Robert Fox, Margaret Barron Luszki, and Richard Schmuck, *Diagnosing Classroom Learning Environments* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1966); Eugene J. Webb and others, *Unobtrusive Measures* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966); Edmund J. Amidon and John B. Hough, eds., *Interaction Analysis: Theory, Research and Application* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1967); John P. Robinson and Phillip R. Shaver, *Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes* (Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1969); Ian Westbury and Arno A. Bellack, eds., *Research into Classroom Processes* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1971); and Dale G. Lake, Matthew B. Miles, and Ralph B. Earle, Jr., eds., *Measuring Human Behavior* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1973). Much of the theory and all of the instruments in this chapter are based on the experience of Wayne R. Hager at the University of Idaho; we wish to acknowledge our indebtedness to his work.

Resources

The following individuals can be particularly valuable in the establishment of a classroom diagnostic service: Michael Meinick, Clinic to Improve University Teaching, University of Massachusetts; Wayne R. Hager, Director, Educational Consulting Service, Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Idaho; Tony Grasha, Institute for Research and Training in Higher Education, University of Cincinnati; John F. Noonan, Center for Improving Teaching Effectiveness, Virginia Commonwealth University; and Steven R. Phillips, Coordinator of Faculty Development, University of Puget Sound.

Chapter Five

Classroom Training: Microteaching and Teaching Laboratories

A. Microteaching

Microteaching is a technique for the training of teachers developed by Dwight Allen and his colleagues in the Stanford Teacher Education Program during the early and mid 1960's. In their important book on the subject, Allen and Kevin Ryan describe a typical microteaching session:

> A teacher holds up before four children a picture of what appears to be a branch that has five brownish leaves. However, when the students inspect the picture closely, they realize that two of the five leaves are actually butterflies. The teacher then questions the four students, trying to see whether they can come up with an explanation of this phenomenon. Fifteen feet away a supervisor aims the camera of a portable videotape recorder at the group, and occasionally jots down some notes. The lesson lasts for only five minutes, but during this brief time, two things happen: The students discover that the butterflies are camouflaged so that they look like leaves, and that this disguise protects the butterflies from their natural enemies. The teacher has a chance to practice the teaching skill of asking probing questions. As soon as the lesson is over, the supervisor has the students fill out a form. They do this quickly and leave the room. In the minutes that follow, the supervisor and the teacher discuss the lesson, reviewing the supervisor's notes and the forms filled out by the students, and viewing parts of the videotaped lesson. Then, after a short break, the entire process is repeated. However, the second time around, the teacher teaches a different group of four students.[1]

The basic sequence of teach, analyze and reteach, and the focus on a specific teaching skill, in this case probing questions, identify this as a session in microteaching.

1. Assumptions and Procedures

Allen and Ryan make five basic assumptions about microteaching:

First, microteaching is real teaching. Although the teaching situation is a constructed one in the sense that teacher and students work together in a practice situation, nevertheless, bona fide teaching does take place.

Second, microteaching lessens the complexities of normal classroom teaching. Class size, scope of content, and time are all reduced.

Third, microteaching focuses on training for the accomplishment of specific tasks. These tasks may be the practice of instructional skills, the practice of techniques of teaching, the mastery of certain curricular materials, or the demonstration of teaching methods.

Fourth, microteaching allows for the increased control of practice. In the practice setting of microteaching, the rituals of time, students, methods of feedback and supervision, and many other factors can be manipulated. As a result, a high degree of control can be built into the training program.

Fifth, microteaching greatly expands the normal knowledge-of-results or feedback dimension in teaching. Immediately after teaching a brief micro-lesson, the trainee

> engages in a critique of his performance . . . [and] this feedback can be immediately translated into practice when the trainee reteaches shortly after the critique conference.[2]

A typical microteaching session begins with the presentation of a five-minute lesson by the teacher-in-training to a group of three or four students. The teaching is observed by a supervisor and, when possible, is video taped. At the completion of the five-minute sequence the students complete a brief form which provides feedback on the session and then leave the classroom. The teacher and supervisor go over those forms, view parts of the video tape and, in general, discuss the teaching session. Once the critique is over, the teacher is given a brief period of time to rework the session, incorporating into it the information received from the students, the supervisor, and the video tape. The session is then retaught to a different group of students and the feedback process is repeated. This concludes the microteaching session.

2. A Component Skills Approach to Teaching

Central to the idea of microteaching is the belief that teaching consists of a number of discrete, identifiable activities which can be isolated and taught. Microteaching is a highly focused training device which concentrates on these component skills. Although the specific skills being taught will vary according to the needs of the particular program, Allen and Ryan identify several that are characteristic of most teaching situations and which may be particularly useful to college teachers:

> 1. Stimulus variation—the ability to vary the pattern of instruction, which includes such elements as the instructor's movement around the classroom, his gestures, his voice level, and his ability to draw attention to important points.
>
> 2. Set induction—the ability to prepare a class for learning, often done through an analogy, a demonstration, or a leading question.
>
> 3. Closure—as a complement to set induction, the ability to bring a learning activity to a close in a way that not only summarizes the activity but also draws it together into a new conceptualization.
>
> 4. Silence and nonverbal cues—the ability to use nonverbal messages to move a class discussion.
>
> 5. Reinforcement of student participation—the ability to use both verbal and nonverbal messages to encourage and control student participation.
>
> 6. Questioning—the ability to ask clear, stimulating questions.
>
> 7. Use of examples—the ability to use both verbal and visual examples at appropriate times in a discussion.[3]

These and other skills may be identified as desirable and taught through the microteaching process. It must be pointed out, however, that such a set of skills does not imply an ideal or prescribed model of *the* good teacher; instead, microteaching aims at refining and increasing the range of skills available to individual teachers to use as the demands of the situation and the material require.

3. Strengths and Limitations

Microteaching has a number of obvious strengths. It is a highly focused activity that allows an instructor to work on one teaching skill at a time. It provides a safe environment in which to experiment and practice. It provides both rapid feedback and a chance to put that feedback

to immediate use by reteaching. Perhaps more important than any of these, however, is that by breaking down the complex act of teaching into clearly identifiable skills, microteaching not only makes teaching a skill which can be taught but it also shows university and college faculty that teaching is not a mystical, personal and, above all, private activity but a rational and public enterprise that can be observed, analyzed, and learned. In other words, the component skills approach advocated by microteaching can serve as an effective way of heightening faculty awareness about the teaching process. Finally, as we shall see when we turn to possible modifications of microteaching for use in higher education, one of the greatest strengths of microteaching is its flexibility. Although a microteaching program developed on Stanford's model may become rather elaborate, the basic sequence of teach, analyze, and reteach is one that can be used in a number of settings. In short, microteaching can become an effective part of any faculty development program.

Like any approach to instructional improvement, of course, microteaching does have its limitations. In spite of the obvious logic of the component skills approach, many faculty will resist microteaching as an unnecessary and even dangerous dissection of an activity that is organic, whole, and unified (even though many of these same faculty will defend such rational analysis in their own fields). Again, objections may be raised to the short time limit of a microteaching session; many faculty may feel, perhaps with some justification, that such a limit does not allow them sufficient time for the natural development of an idea or the practice of a skill. There are also obvious logistic problems involved in bringing together faculty, students, equipment (that may or may not work), and a supervisor at the same time and place. Even a modest microteaching clinic requires careful planning and organization.

There are, however, three perhaps more serious limitations to microteaching. First, as Allen and Ryan acknowledge, microteaching focuses on teaching on the assumption that certain kinds of teaching behavior will result in improved student learning; in other words, microteaching may be unduly concerned with the process of teaching and not enough with the ultimate goal of teaching, which is learning.[4] Second, the concept of microteaching was developed as part of a program for undergraduates about to enter secondary teaching; as such, it could be a required part of their program. No faculty development effort has, nor perhaps should have, that kind of control. Although microteaching clearly works, it is often difficult to get faculty to voluntarily immerse themselves in the process to the point where they will see that it does indeed improve their teaching. Third, microteaching is focused exclusively on in-class performance; it does not deal with the values, attitudes, and structures which surround the classroom and which profoundly influence the kind of teaching and learning taking place there. Microteaching can doubtless produce better lecturers and that is an obvious benefit. It is, however, not likely to cause a faculty member to rethink the assumptions and implications that lie behind the fact that he lectures. Although the advocates of microteaching certainly do not recommend it as the ultimate cure for all our woes, those who are to implement a program of faculty development should also be aware of its limitations. Microteaching can be an effective component of a faculty development program; it can not be the whole program.

4. Modifications for Use in Higher Education

Microteaching can be used and modified in a number of ways to meet the needs of college and university teaching. It can be made the skills training component of a diagnostic/training sequence like the one currently being conducted at the University of Massachusetts under Mi-

chael Melnik. It can also serve this same function in a broad program of faculty development, one which concerns itself with both the cognitive and affective aspects of teaching. An obvious use in higher education is in the training of graduate students as teachers. Finally, the concept of teach, analyze, and reteach can be extended in a number of ways, from the creation of simulated classrooms to the videotaping of real ones.

At this point, two definitions of microteaching emerge. On the one hand, microteaching may be seen as the highly focused learning activity described earlier in this chapter; on the other hand, the teach, analyze, reteach sequence can be almost infinitely developed and microteaching then may be seen as almost any activity that incorporates that sequence. One of those activities, the teaching laboratory, has proven effective enough with college and university faculty to warrant further and separate discussion.

B. The Teaching Laboratory

1. General Principles and Procedures

A teaching laboratory provides a safe, controlled environment in which faculty may refine already existing skills or develop new ones. It differs from microteaching primarily in that the skills to be worked on are defined by the faculty member himself.

The teaching laboratory is usually staffed by a supervisor and three to six other individuals who are to be the "students" for the class (as we shall see, these need not be actual students). The supervisor is responsible for directing and controlling the process, which begins with the establishment of a contract between himself and the teacher. This contract is a specific list of the issues or aspects of his teaching the instructor wants information about. Someone about to present a lecture, for instance, may want to know how the "class" responds to his organization, his use of examples, or his pacing, while someone about to lead a class discussion may often request responses to the interest level of the experience or to the kind of questions he is asking. The details of this contract are worked out between the instructor and the consultant to the point that they both know and are comfortable with its terms; like microteaching, the teaching laboratory is a focused activity.

The second step in the process of the teaching laboratory is the teaching of a five- to ten-minute session by the teacher. This session, which is video taped if possible, may be self-contained or may be part of what would be a longer classroom sequence. This is followed by the playback of the video tape if available and then by the feedback session, in which the instructor receives information from both the consultant and the "students" on those aspects of his teaching contracted for earlier. Finally, the instructor is encouraged to repeat this process, incorporating into his reteaching session the information gained during the replay and feedback periods.

2. Use in a Workshop Setting

A workshop, particularly one which has built a level of trust and openness among its members, is an ideal setting for the teaching laboratory. In such a setting several of the participants can be used as students for the class; the instructor who is to do the teaching may request them to role play certain kinds of students (hostile, apathetic, freshmen, and so forth) or he may simply ask them to "be themselves."

There are a number of advantages to using a teaching laboratory as part of a faculty development workshop. Aside from its primary intention of providing the individual faculty mem-

ber with controlled information about his teaching, it also provides other faculty with an opportunity to see their colleagues teach and to realize that most teaching skills and problems have little regard for disciplinary boundaries. In addition, a teaching laboratory conducted with faculty as students will often generate a general and useful discussion on teaching that may itself be a new experience for many faculty. Finally, the opportunity to give constructive feedback may be a valuable learning experience for the faculty participants; this is often an important point in a workshop to make the distinction between description and evaluation and to discuss the nature of helpful feedback (see Handout Number Ten).

3. Use on a Campus

The teaching laboratory is well adapted to use on an individual campus. Space and workable equipment can usually be made available. Moreover, an on-campus teaching laboratory is an ideal place to involve students in a faculty development program, for instead of using four or five faculty as students—a luxury often not possible in the conflicts of schedules and commitments—it is often possible to use real students in this role. With a bit of training in observation and feedback, students can add a fresh and vital element to a teaching laboratory; they can, moreover, form a core of student observers who may be useful in other phases of a school's faculty development program.

4. Strengths and Limitations

The teaching laboratory shares many of the strengths and weaknesses of microteaching. It is focused, controlled, and relatively safe. It can heighten awareness of the teaching/learning process. It can open up dialogue between colleagues on teaching. It has the additional and important strength of providing faculty with control over the process, for the skills to be observed are defined by the faculty member and not by the program. On the other hand, the teaching laboratory can have logistics problems, may meet initial faculty resistance, and is really only useful in working on traditional skills. Moreover, the teaching laboratory suffers perhaps more than microteaching does from what Allen and Ryan call the "cosmetic effect," the tendency for teachers (and anyone, for that matter) who have not been video taped before to concentrate during their first playback session more on the superficial aspects of appearance and dress than on their teaching behavior. This effect generally fades quite rapidly in the course of a microteaching program, but when, for instance, an individual faculty member may only get one chance to work in a teaching laboratory during a workshop or a semester, the cosmetic effect can become a significant factor. For this reason it is often useful if possible to save the video tape of a faculty member's session so at least he can go over it several times himself if he wishes.

Finally, like microteaching, the teaching laboratory should not constitute an entire faculty development program. Workshops that emphasize or even feature solely the teaching laboratory may provide an important entry point into the process of faculty development for many faculty members; the curious or the brave may be tempted to try out an on-campus teaching laboratory. Yet, like microteaching, the teaching laboratory is focused exclusively on the process of teaching and is not concerned with attitude or with structure. Other components of the faculty development program must deal with these issues.

NOTES:

[1] Dwight Allen and Kevin Ryan, *Microteaching* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969), p. 1.

[2] Allen and Ryan, pp. 2-3.

[3] This component skills approach to teaching is discussed in more detail in Allen and Ryan, pp. 13-26.

[4] One way of addressing this issue is to incorporate into a teaching laboratory the actual testing of learning made possible in W. James Popam and others, *Teaching Improvement Kit* (Los Angeles: Instructional Appraisal Services, 1972).

Chapter Six

Educational Methods and Technologies

As one of a series of components in a comprehensive faculty development program training in educational methods and technologies is essential. An instructor may have critically examined his values with reference to teaching and student-faculty relationships. He may have received helpful information about his behavior in the classroom. At a certain point, however, he will want to receive training in both traditional and nontraditional ways of presenting his course material and will want to design a course in such a way as to make it more compatible with his values and attitudes. New educational methodologies will provide him with some of this needed information. Knowledge of contract learning systems, self-paced courses, and experienced-based learning programs can allow the instructor to tailor-make his course to the students he is serving, to the educational environment in which he and the students are operating, to the learning objectives of the course, and to his own preferred teaching style. Similarly, in acquiring knowledge of new technologies an instructor will experience greater freedom in planning courses and in making himself available to students in a variety of roles.

Methodological and technological resources are available in colleges of education throughout the country. Many of the means and mechanisms that have been developed for primary and secondary education can be adapted for use in higher education. We should also look to nontraditional educational institutions for assistance in these areas. For example, the armed forces educational and training programs offer vast technological resources that are becoming increasingly available to civilian educational institutions. We should not forget that simulations, as instructional devices, were first developed and used by the military. Innovative methodologies and technologies are also available in many proprietary schools and in the training and educational program of many large corporations. At present, American higher education seems to be less in need of new ideas than in need of mechanisms for learning about and using the innovations emanating from other educational and training institutions.

A. Educational Technology

In the selection of material for this chapter we have concentrated on educational methodology, for this aspect of instruction seems to be amenable to verbal description. Educational technologies, unfortunately, usually require "hands-on" experience before they can be fully understood, let alone used. Furthermore, in cases like computer-assisted instruction, the knowledge that is needed to achieve even an elementary comprehension of their use would lead us far beyond this handbook. In the present context, therefore, we will only identify several books and periodicals that can help provide a perspective on this important, but often neglected, aspect of faculty development. We would also recommend that someone now working with the specific technology in question be consulted, observed, and modeled, for the skills that are needed in this field are rarely specified in sufficient detail in most published accounts of educational technology.

The British have led the way in using educational technologies to improve the quality and efficiency of instruction. The British Open University stands as a monument to their innovative endeavors in this field. A series of proceedings from the British Association for Programmed

Learning and Educational Technology has been published in a five-volume set titled *Aspects of Educational Technology;* the first two volumes were published by Methuen Press, while the last three were published by the Pitman Publishing House. Though the articles in these volumes are of variable quality and difficulty, they do provide valuable information on the state of the art through 1970. Several other British books also provide valuable introductory information: Ivor K. Davies and James Hartley, eds., *Contributions to an Educational Technology* (London: Butterworth and Company, 1972), Ivor K. Davies, *The Management of Learning* (London: McGraw-Hill, 1971), and Kenneth Richmond, ed., *The Concept of Educational Technology* (London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1970). The latter of these three volumes is particularly interesting, for it is written in a way which actively involves the reader.

Of the books published in the United States, at least two can be recommended: J. E. Coulson, ed., *Programmed Learning and Computer-Based Instruction* (New York: Wiley, 1962) and Ake Bjerstedt, *Educational Technology* (New York: Wiley, 1972). Several commission documents also provide valuable overviews. The Commission on Instructional Technology produced a book titled *To Improve Learning,* published by the United States Government Printing Office in 1970. A two-volume source book on *Teaching Machines and Programmed Learning* has been published by the National Education Association, the first in 1960, the second in 1965. Finally, an important study on instructional technology has been published by the Carnegie Commission under the title *The Fourth Revolution: Instructional Technology in Higher Education.* Many of the recommendations from this document should be given serious consideration by colleges and universities in the United States. One other source of general information should also be reviewed: the *Journal of Programmed Learning and Educational Technology.*

In the area of programmed instruction, one can turn to a classic study by the originator of this technology: B. F. Skinner, *The Technology of Teaching* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968). Several standard studies can also be recommended in the area of behavioral and instructional objectives: R. F. Mager, *Preparing Objectives for Programmed Instruction* (San Francisco: Fearon, 1961); R. F. Mager, *Preparing Instructional Objectives* (San Francisco: Fearon, 1962); and W. J. Popham and others, *Instructional Objectives* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969).

In the area of computer-assisted instruction, an excellent introductory text has been produced by the Carnegie Commission: Roger E. Levien, ed., *The Emerging Technology: Instructional Uses of the Computer in Higher Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972). Instructional simulations and games have been surveyed in several volumes: Paul A. Twelker, ed., *Instructional Simulation Systems: An Annotated Bibliography* (Corvallis, Oregon: Continuing Education Publications, 1969) (this book describes both simulations and articles on simulations); David W. Zuckerman and Robert E. Horn, *The Guide to Simulations/Games for Education and Training* (Lexington, Mass.: Information Resources Inc., 1973); and Ron Stadsklev, *Handbook of Simulation Gaming in Social Education* (University of Alabama: Institute of Higher Education Research and Services, 1975) (a textbook and directory). A newsletter, edited by Don H. Coombs at the University of Idaho titled *Simulation/Gaming/News,* publishes many interesting, new simulations and games that can be used in higher education.

Several national training workshops and resource centers can be recommended for faculty development consultants who wish to improve their skills in the use of specific technologies. The Center for Personalized Instruction at Georgetown University in Washington, D.C. offers workshops on self-paced systems of instruction. An excellent two-week workshop in the design and use of simulations is conducted by Gary Shirts and his associates at Simili II in La Jolla, Cali-

fornia. Resource materials in the field of educational television are available from the Great Plains National Instructional Television Library in Lincoln, Nebraska. The Community College of the Air Force at the Randolph Air Force Base in Texas will provide members of the higher education community with training materials that are concerned with the use of criterion-referenced instructional systems.

Hopefully, the resources which we have just identified will enable faculty development programs to begin exploring several different aspects of educational technology. While this component can no longer be considered *the* answer to the problems of American higher education, it certainly should be considered an integral part of a training-oriented faculty development program.

B. Educational Methodology

The following exercises and handouts are devoted to educational methodology. Some of these suggest ways in which faculty can improve their skills with such traditional teaching methods as lectures and class discussions; others can help faculty explore a wide range of alternate teaching methods. As we have suggested, educational methodology can be more easily described than can most forms of technology. Perhaps more importantly, however, it may well be that in spite of more extensive use of technology in American higher education, the primary teaching situation in most colleges and universities will continue to involve a single faculty member alone in a classroom with a number of students. Neither computed-assisted instruction nor educational simulations can easily replace the knowledge and expertise of that individual instructor. Assistance in teaching in this traditional setting may often be the first and most appreciated service any program of faculty development can offer.

EXERCISE NUMBER FOUR

TITLE: Getting Students Involved in the Classroom

SOURCE: Adapted in part from a handout originally designed by Tony Grasha, University of Cincinnati

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: "Getting Students Involved in the Classroom" may be used either as a handout or as the basis of an exercise on student participation. In either event, it can provide faculty with some useful theoretical concepts and practical insights into the nature of student involvement in their classes. Although the primary focus of this discussion is on lectures and class discussions, "Getting Students Involved in the Classroom" does lead to a consideration of alternate approaches to teaching and can hence serve as a preface for some of the other discussions in this chapter.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: If used as a handout, "Getting Students Involved in the Classroom" can be distributed for discussion by a group of faculty, can be used as the basis of a presentation by the seminar or workshop leader, or can be included with materials distributed at a faculty development seminar or workshop. If used as an exercise, the concept of one- and two-way communication can be effectively introduced by using "One-Way, Two-Way: A Communication Experiment" in J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, *A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training* (San Diego: University Associates, 1969), I, 13-18, while student learning styles may be demonstrated through the role play described in Exercise Number Three.

GETTING STUDENTS INVOLVED IN THE CLASSROOM

There is generally no single reason why some students are in varying degrees uninterested and unwilling to participate in the classroom. Usually a combination of factors are responsible, and the instructor is faced with diagnosing the problems in each individual class. The following represents some of the more common causes of student non-involvement:

I. Factors which contribute to one-way communication on the part of the instructor.

II. Certain student learning styles which avoid involvement.

III. The lack of specific classroom structures which encourage participation.

The following sections examine each of the above causes, suggest how each contributes to the problem, and offer some possible solutions.

I. A tendency for the instructor to encourage one-way communication patterns will lead to a lack of involvement and participation.

A. *General characteristics of one- and two-way communication.*

One-way: Listener has little or no opportunity to respond immediately and directly. A teacher must make assumptions about the listener's skill level, prior training, and understanding of the material being communicated. Therefore, errors like the following could be made by the teacher: making the material too difficult, making the material too simple, making assumptions which are not fully shared by the audience, thus making it impossible for them to understand what is being said. Other characteristics: faster transmission, less accuracy, potential lack of common vocabulary.

Two-way: There is a flow of information among and between individuals. Because of the opportunity for immediate feedback, many of the assumptions that one makes under one-way communication about skill level, prior training, and understanding of the material being communicated get tested immediately. Other characteristics: slower transmission, greater accuracy, time to develop a common vocabulary.

B. *Psychological effects of one-way communication on students.*

1. *Frustration*—the student cannot easily communicate or ask for clarification of instructor information.
2. *Apathy*—a lack of involvement and interest in what is going on.
3. *Fear*—students don't want to talk in front of the group for fear of being put down or for fear of making the teacher angry.
4. *Dependence*—students expect the teacher to give all the necessary information. Most become unable to judge the value of the information.
5. *Hostility and/or aggression*—they may cheat or quit coming to class.

All of the five psychological reactions will make it difficult for the instructor to get students involved in a meaningful manner. A movement towards two-way communication patterns will help reduce these reactions.

C. *Factors which contribute to one-way communication.*

1. *Faculty behaviors.*

a. Status and title of the speaker and overusing it.

b. Power to pass and fail.

c. Formal mannerisms.

d. Using sarcasm or ridicule.
e. Making terminal statements where no disagreement is possible.
f. Making punishing remarks.
g. Displaying a great amount of detailed knowledge.
h. Frequent use of technical language.
i. Not getting to know students' names. Non-entities don't like to communicate with each other.

2. *General atmosphere.*

a. *Front to back seating arrangements encourage one-way communication.* It is hard to talk to the back of someone else's head. Front to back seating arrangements discourage students from talking among themselves but they do focus attention on the instructor.

b. *A failure to periodically solicit student feedback* in a course about how it is progressing. Are students getting out of the course what they want? Are the classroom procedures and methods used well? Are there some things that you are doing which students don't like (for example, lecture organization, clarity of presentations, unfriendly manner)? Information on these factors not only helps make the classroom atmosphere better but it also creates *an atmosphere where students feel the instructor is interested in what they have to say.* This has a tendency to transfer into content areas as well.

c. *Required attendance.* Students who feel coerced into attending every session are less likely to want to participate.

d. *An overemphasis on grades and grading.* Constantly stressing the importance of material for the midterm or final, how important a good grade in your course is, and how much you appreciate good students will lead to a lack of involvement. Students are less likely to be involved when the name of the game is to get a grade and not learning something that might be of value to them.

e. *Encourage exclusive dialogue with the instructor and not between students.* This fosters a lack of involvement since students must compete with each other for the "king's ear." This is more like convincing or arguing with the instructor over a point but it is hardly like a dialogue among peers. Trying to capture the "king's ear" is something most students lose interest in.

f. *The non-involvement cycle.* All of the above help create an atmosphere where students don't want to get involved. Consequently, they begin to behave that way, which leads the instructor to assume they are apathetic and uninterested, and the instructor continues to treat them in ways that lead to more apathy and uninvolvement. Thus a self-fulfilling prophecy begins to emerge.

II. Some student learning styles avoid classroom involvement.

Students exhibit a number of learning styles in their approach to the classroom. Three that are related to a lack of involvement are:

A. *Avoidant.* This response style is typical of a student who is not interested in learning course content in the traditional classroom. He does not participate with students and

teachers in the classroom. He is uninterested or overwhelmed by what goes on in the classes.

B. *Competitive.* This response style is exhibited by the student who learns material in order to perform better than others in the class. He feels he must compete with other students in the class for the rewards of the classroom, such as grades or teachers' attention. He views the classroom as a win-lose situation where he must always win. Other students are unlikely to join this student in participation because of the win-lose nature of the interaction.

C. *Dependent.* This style is characteristic of the student who shows little intellectual curiosity and who learns only what is required. He sees teachers and peers as sources of structure and support. He looks to authority figures for guidelines and wants to be told what to do. Consequently, this student is unlikely to initiate or have much that is original to say in class discussions.

Three other learning styles are more likely to result in classroom participation; they are:

D. *Collaborative.* This style is typical of the student who feels he can learn the most by sharing his ideas and talents. He cooperates with teachers and peers and likes to work with others. He sees the classroom as a place for social interaction as well as content learning.

E. *Participant.* This style is characteristic of the student who wants to learn course content and likes to go to class. He takes responsibility for getting the most out of class and participates with others when told to do so. He feels that he should take part in as much of the class related activity as possible, but he does little that is not part of the course outline.

F. *Independent.* This response style is characteristic of the student who likes to think for himself. He prefers to work on his own, but he will listen to the ideas of others in the classroom. He learns the content he feels is important and is confident in his learning abilities.

Research shows that students do not have just one style but that instead they have several in varying degrees and in various situations. It is not necessary to have a battery of psychological instruments to assess these styles, since an awareness of your students' behaviors will give you clues as to which ones are operating. A more formal way of obtaining this information is to give each student the description of the various learning styles (without the descriptive word) and ask them to rank the styles on a scale of most and least like them. A tabulation of that information may give you useful information about the predominate learning styles in your classroom. Moreover, by designing your classroom in certain ways, you can reduce the occurrence of certain styles.

III. The lack of specific classroom structures and rewards which encourage participation.

Students will not especially participate unless they are encouraged to do so and rewarded for it. *The weakest form of encouragement* is to tell students "I want or I expect you to participate in the class and part of your grade will be based on such participation." The problems this presents are: a) What specific behaviors on the student's part count as participation? Asking questions, answering questions, giving a report, sharing information? b) How much of the student's grade is affected by participation? and c) What are the specific consequences of not participating?

A different approach to the problem is to assume that students will participate when specific classroom structures are established for participation and the subsequent participation is rewarding to the student.

A. *Rewards.* Three classes of rewards can operate in the classroom. They will not operate, however, unless *attempts are made to make them operate.*

1. *Instructor rewards*—recognition of a good performance verbally and/or through earning specific points towards a grade;
2. *Peer rewards*--a recognition from peers that the student did a good job. This can be done informally or students can be asked to formally give written comments to a peer for some participation activity; and
3. *Self-reward*—We all evaluate our performances, and the personal satisfaction from a job well done is rewarding. For this to operate in the classroom, students need to know what specific participation jobs they must accomplish.

To the extent that all three types of rewards are allowed to operate, a high degree of participation is possible.

B. *Classroom structures.* The following table presents a tabulation of various kinds of classroom structures which encourage participation and which you may find useful in your own classrooms. If you choose to experiment with any of the less common methods described on the table, it is often desirable to take a fair amount of time to introduce the technique to the class so that everyone understands its purpose and feels comfortable with it.

CLASSROOM STRUCTURES WHICH ENCOURAGE STUDENT PARTICIPATION

METHOD	DEFINITION	WHEN USED	PREPARATION/PROCEDURE	LIMITATION
Group Discussion.	Opportunity for pooling of ideas, experience, and knowledge.	For majority of meetings because of adaptability to greater group participation.	Preplanning to develop discussion outline. Leader encourages every member to participate by guiding the discussion.	Practical with not more than twenty persons. Becomes disorganized without careful planning of material to be covered.
Buzz Groups.	Allows for total participation by group members through small clusters of participants, followed by discussion of the entire group.	As a technique to get participation from every individual in the group. Highly adaptable to other group methods.	Prepare one or two questions on the subject to give each group. Divide the members into small clusters of four to six. A leader is chosen to record and report pertinent ideas discussed.	Thought must be given as to the purpose and organization of groups.
Panel Discussion.	A discussion in a conversational form among a selected group of persons with a leader, in front of an audience that joins in later.	As a technique to stimulate interest and thinking, and to provoke better discussion.	The leader plans with the four to eight members of the panel. The panel discusses informally without any set speeches. The leader then opens the discussion to the entire group and summarizes.	Can get off beam; personality of speakers may overshadow content; vocal speaker can monopolize program.
Symposium Discussion.	A discussion in which the topic is broken into its various phases; each part is presented by an expert or person well informed on that particular phase, in a brief, concise speech.	When specific information is desired.	Leader meets with the three or four members of the symposium and plans outline. Participants are introduced and reports are given, group directs questions to proper symposium members, leader summarizes.	Can get off beam; personality of speakers may overshadow content; vocal speaker can monopolize program.

METHOD	DEFINITION	WHEN USED	PREPARATION/PROCEDURE	LIMITATION
Debate Discussion.	A pro and con discussion of a controversial issue. Objective is to convince the audience rather than display skill in attacking the opponent.	In discussing a controversial issue on which there are fairly definite opinions in the group on both sides to bring these differences out into the open in a friendly manner.	Divide the group into sides of pro and con. Each speaker should be limited to a predetermined time followed by rebuttal if desired.	Members are often not objective towards the subject.
Experience Discussion.	A small or large group discussion following a report on the main point of a book, article, movie, or life experience.	To present a new point of view or to present issues that will stimulate thought and discussion.	Plan with others participating on how review is to be presented. Then have an open discussion on pertinent issues and points of view as experienced.	Ability of participating members to relate to others and motivate thinking.
Concentric Circle.	A small circle of group members form within the larger circle. The inner circle discusses a topic while the role of the outside circle is to listen. The discussion is then reversed.	As a technique to stimulate interest and to provoke good discussion. This is especially good to get more response from a group that is slow in participating.	Leader and planning group work out questions that will be discussed by the concentric circle and then by the larger circle.	Much thought and preparation must be given to the questions for discussion. Room and movable chairs needed.
Reaction Sheet.	A method of reacting to ideas in the following ways: Ideas that you question; Ideas that are new to you; Ideas that really "hit home."	As a way to get the group to react. Combine this with other methods.	Prepare topic and reaction sheets. Explain and distribute reaction sheets with the instructions to write as they listen, watch, or read. Follow with group discussion.	Topic should be somewhat controversial.

METHOD	DEFINITION	WHEN USED	PREPARATION/PROCEDURE	LIMITATION
Phillips 66.	This is a spontaneous method where six people view their opinions on a topic for six minutes.	To add spice and variety to methods of presentations.	Define topic of discussion. Count off six people and allow six minutes for discussion. Allow for group discussion or reassignment of six people.	Must be used somewhat flexibly.
Reverse Thinking.	Expression of thought by thinking in reverse.	To gain an insight into others' feelings and to see another point of view	Prepare topic—explain to group the theory of reverse thinking. Combine with other methods.	A challenge to group members.
Role Playing.	The spontaneous acting out of a situation or an incident by selected members of the group.	As the basis of developing clearer insights into the feelings of people and the forces in a situation which facilitate or block good human relations.	Choose an appropriate situation or problem. Have the group define the roles—the general characteristics to be represented by each player. Enact the scene. Observe and discuss such things as specific behavior, underlying forces, or emotional reactions.	Group leader must be skilled so that actors will play their roles seriously, without self-consciousness.
Picture Making.	A way of bringing out ideas or principles on a topic by means of simple illustrations made by group members on the blackboard or large chart paper.	As a technique to stimulate interest, thinking, and participation.	Leader and members of planning group select general principles or questions on the topic which would be suitable to illustrate. Leader divides the group into four or five sub-groups. Each sub-group is given a statement or problem to illustrate. After completing the picture making, each group shows and explains the picture. This is followed by discussion.	Instruction must be clear as to the value of picture making and adequate materials supplied.

METHOD	DEFINITION	WHEN USED	PREPARATION/PROCEDURE	LIMITATION
Brain-Storming	Technique in creative thinking in which group members storm a problem with their brains.	To get new ideas, and release individual potentialities in thinking up ideas.	Leader and members of planning group select suitable problems or questions on the topic selected by the entire group. Procedure: The leader explains to the group the meaning of brain-storming and the following rules: Judicial (critical) judgments ruled out. Criticism to be applied later. Quantity of ideas wanted. The more ideas the better chance of good ones. Free wheeling welcomed. The wilder the idea the better; it's easier to tame them down than to pump them up. Hitchhiking is legitimate. If you can improve on someone else's ideas, so much the better. Leader rings bell when one of the above rules is violated. Recorder lists the ideas. Follow-up—type list and bring to next meeting to give to members.	To be utilized as only a part of a class.

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HANDOUT NUMBER ONE

TITLE: Summaries of Eight Common Course Designs

SOURCE: Adapted from Tony Grasha, University of Cincinnati

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This handout provides an excellent summary description of eight different teaching methods: (1) lecture, (2) small group learning experiences, (3) the Keller plan, (4) simulations, (5) modular instruction, (6) peer teaching, (7) contract teaching, and (8) tutorial teaching. These descriptions are not, in most cases, intended to enable a faculty member to employ all of these methods at once but rather to expose him to one or more methods with which he may not be familiar. Most importantly, this handout may be used to encourage the faculty member to examine the full range of teaching methods available to him.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: Whether used as the focus of a discussion, as part of the materials distributed during a workshop, or as the basis of a micro-college (see Chapter Fourteen), the seminar director or workshop trainer should be prepared to provide additional information about each of these methods, for this handout tends to generate interest while raising more questions than it answers. Books and articles which discuss many of these methods have been included in the "References and Further Reading" section of this chapter.

SUMMARIES OF EIGHT COMMON COURSE DESIGNS

1. *Lecture:* This is, of course, the most common form of teaching in higher education. It probably needs no further introduction except to say that there are many variations on the process. Most lectures, however, have the instructor spending the majority of his time sharing information with students in essentially a one-way communication process. That is, the dialogue is from the instructor to the student, with the student placed in a listener role. Student questions and answers are welcomed and an occasional discussion occurs between students and the instructor.

2. *Small Group Learning Experiences:* These techniques share the goals of actively involving students in the learning process as well as increasing the students' interpersonal and group problem-solving skills. Examples of such techniques are:

   a. *Class Discussions:* Next to the lecture, this is probably the most frequently used classroom technique in American colleges and universities and needs as little introduction. Class discussions generally involve the instructor asking questions of and responding to one or more of the students in the class. At times extensive discussion may take place between students, but usually the dialogue focuses on the instructor.

   b. *Buzz Groups.* Small sub-groups of students are given a series of questions, topics, or problems to discuss and work on. Each sub-group is asked to come to some kind of resolution with regard to a given question, topic, or problem. Students might be asked to develop a solution in one class period or over several. In either case, the small groups are usually asked to report to the larger class. At this time, comments and discussion from other students are welcomed. The groups are often required to write up the results of their discussion activity. Student panel discussions can also be used to present information in the context of such a design.

   c. *Group Courses.* Small groups of students are asked to design a course of their own for a given period of time, such as two weeks, a quarter, or a semester. The students are responsible for teaching themselves or for obtaining adequate resources for teaching certain topics. Faculty participation varies depending on the needs of the students and teacher. The faculty member is often helpful in making suggestions to the students. The technique is particularly effective after the students have had some previous exposure to the material. Also, when using this approach, it is best to have students initially design small amounts of time. Once they have gained some experience at this, the amount of course time they design is gradually increased.

3. *Keller Plan:* The Keller Plan is a self-paced, student-tutored, and mastery-oriented instructional design. Printed study guides are used for communication, and a few lectures are given by the instructor usually for stimulation and motivation of students.

   A student entering a Keller course finds that the course work is divided into clearly defined topics or units. *In a simple case,* the content of a unit may correspond to a chapter in the text. Study guides are used to guide or direct the student's work on each unit. Study guides introduce the unit, state student objectives for the unit, suggest study procedures, and list study questions. The student may work anywhere to achieve the objectives outlined in the study guide.

   Before moving on to the second unit, the student *must demonstrate mastery of the first unit by perfect or near-perfect performance on a short examination.* The student

requests the exam when he feels prepared. Each unit must be passed before subsequent units can be attempted. Students may meet all course requirements before the term is through, or the student may take more than a term for completing the course. How much time is allowed is usually an instructor option.

The staff needed for implementing such a plan includes an instructor and undergraduate tutors. The instructor selects and organizes material used in the course, writes study guides, and constructs the examinations for the course. A few lectures or demonstrations may be given during the course. *The lectures are not compulsory and no examinations are based on them.* They are used to stimulate the students or, in some cases, to motivate the student to do well. That is, attendance at a lecture is sometimes made dependent upon the student successfully completing and passing the unit or units that the lecture covers. When given, the lectures must be special.

The undergraduate tutors are usually advanced majors in the field or people who have done well in the course the year before. Tutors evaluate readiness tests as satisfactory or unsatisfactory. They also prescribe remedial steps for students who encounter difficulties with the course material and offer support and encouragement for new students. In large courses where graduate assistants are available, the assistants are often used to supervise the tutors and to deal with issues that the undergraduate tutors cannot handle.

4. *Simulation Techniques:* Here the course is taught through devices which attempt to reproduce in a controlled fashion the real world. This can include mock jury situations, a complex criminal justice organization, an economic system, a ghetto environment, or numerous other situations. Students are asked to play various roles, and problems typical to the situation are introduced for the students to solve. The emphasis is on the application of content learned through reading and studying in a controlled situation. Simulation techniques are available commercially or they can be custom designed by the instructor.

5. *Modular Instruction:* The basic concept involves offering individual units that cover major content areas of a course. Each unit is a curriculum package designed for self-study. A set of units may be completed in some particular sequence, or students may choose from several modules at any particular time. Time limits may be set for completion of each module or students may be allowed to complete units at their own pace. The learning units are usually large, each requiring several hours of the students' time. The instructor's role is limited to developing the modules and to monitoring their use. Audio-visual tutorial aids may be used as part of a module but their use is not essential.

   The following steps are used in developing a module: (1) A minimum number of objectives are stated, preferably in terms of observable behavior. (2) A hierarchy of these objectives, which determine the sequence of instruction, is constructed. (3) A pre-test is constructed to determine what competencies each student possesses when entering the module and to help the student focus on areas he is relatively ignorant about. (4) A rationale for the module is articulated. This involves a statement about the value of a particular unit and explains to the student why it is beneficial for him to achieve the stated objectives. (5) Instructional activities are designed to help the student acquire the competencies stated in the objectives. (6) A post-test is given so that the student can assess how much he has learned from the modular unit.

6. *Peer Teaching:* This refers to techniques which use students to help other students learn. Two examples of this are:

a. *Teacher of the Day.* Students are divided into several small groups. The instructor designs a schedule for the course with a clearly defined topic scheduled for one to two class periods. Responsibility for teaching that topic rests with a designated student in each of the groups. Each small group on a given day has the same topic being taught by one of the group members. After completing a topic, one session is spent with each small group leader summarizing for the entire class how he taught the topic and sharing the major points that were taught in their group.

The instructor may sit in on groups or may answer particularly hard questions that the student teachers cannot. To ensure that quality instruction takes place, *the instructor must monitor closely the work of the student teachers.* They should receive feedback on their performance and they should be given tips on how to improve the next time they are assigned a topic to teach. During a course, students may be expected to teach two to three times. Part of their grade is based on their teaching performance. Examinations are given at normal times but both the instructor and the student teachers write exam items.

b. *The Learning Cell.* Students are divided into pairs and are given or choose a specific but common assignment for each classroom period. They then read the assignment on their own. Each student then prepares questions relating to the assignment before the next class meeting. Questions should deal with the substantive content of the assignment, applications of the content, or new ideas suggested by the material. The pairs take turns asking each other their series of questions. The instructor should collect carbon copies of the questions and give students some response to the adequacy of the type of questions they are asking. Exams can be given in the usual manner, but students should be allowed to submit exam items. To help maintain interest, pairs should be rotated periodically.

A variation of this technique is for each student to have read a different assignment. Part of the time is spent with one student explaining what he read and then asking the other questions. The roles are then reversed, with the other student explaining and then questioning.

7. *Contract Teaching:* In this model, each student contracts or agrees with the instructor on how much work he will do in the course. The contract or agreement need not be written but it can be. The agreement should have a clearly understood set of specific responsibilities for both the student and the teacher to fulfill. Each student may have a different contract (a planned set of projects to complete, number of classes to attend, number of exams to take, exam performance that will be achieved, and so forth). The contract or agreement may be designed as a joint effort by the students and teacher, or the teacher may present a contract for acceptance the first day of class. The latter can be done by specifying clearly the amount of work and types of activities that are expected for different grades. Students are asked to indicate within a week what grade they want to work for in the course.

8. *Tutorial Teaching:* Here the instructor meets with students individually or in small groups. The topics chosen for study are jointly agreed upon by the instructor and students. The amount of faculty guidance and faculty-student interaction varies depending on the needs of the particular faculty member and students involved. Students usually take a lot of responsibility for presenting and sharing ideas with the instructor. The instructor shares ideas but usually spends a good deal of time helping the students to sharpen their thinking. Students are usually required to do some type of writing or research project as part of the tutorial.

HANDOUT NUMBER TWO

TITLE: Ways to Improve Lecturing

SOURCE: Tony Grasha, University of Cincinnati, based in part on Wilbert J. McKeachie, *Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for Beginning College Teachers* (Lexington, Mass.: Copyright © 1969 by D. C. Heath and Company).

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This handout provides some useful ideas about how to lecture. While many of the points that are made tend to be rather elementary, they often remind the faculty member about basic principles that have been forgotten or too often violated in practice.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This handout should be distributed in conjunction with a teaching laboratory (see Chapter Five) or some other activity that enables the faculty member to make immediate use of the ideas discussed. If this handout is distributed without comment or immediate use, the danger exists that it may be ignored or read without effect.

WAYS TO IMPROVE LECTURING

Lecturing is a good way to give a lot of information in a relatively short period of time. It is particularly well suited for providing broad overviews and presenting the newest developments in a field. One should keep in mind, however, that lecturing does not allow students to develop concepts or problem-solving skills. If a teacher has a goal of having students learn these skills, class or group discussions may be more appropriate for at least some class sessions.

Since lecturing is basically one-way communication, there is often little exchange between lecturer and students. This can breed dissatisfaction for both parties. Some ways to introduce feedback are for the professor to make himself available before and/or after a lecture, allow time for questions and answers, hand out questionnaires, set up a student committee to serve as an advisory board on lectures, or ask someone to observe some class sessions. The emphasis of feedback should be on improvement, not criticism.

The lecture method can be very effective. The following points have been found helpful for achieving good lectures: (1) keep in mind the goals you have for the period and the content you want treated; (2) try to have about three major points, since this is the number people are likely to remember; (3) a certain amount of redundancy is necessary, but try to make a point in different ways; (4) include only the amount of material you think you can *comfortably* handle during the given time period.

We all want to give interesting, worthwhile lectures, which means we need to arouse student interest in them. Classrooms are often hot and stuffy. Airing the room before you speak can set a good environment for the lecture. There are some points about public speaking that we probably all learned in speech classes but have since forgotten. They are a very important part of effective lecturing, so a brief review follows: (1) use a variety of pitch and volume. Taping a lecture is a good way to find out how you are doing with this. Practice makes a big difference; (2) look at your audience. They are more interested in what you say than are the blackboard or the windows. It also helps keep students alert and interested if you look at them; (3) try to avoid stereotyped behaviors, since they are disruptive to communication. You might have to ask students or a fellow faculty member about this one, as we often aren't aware of such mannerisms in ourselves; (4) be enthusiastic about the material in the lecture. If the topic doesn't have meaning for you, you might use a different class method that day, such as group discussion, or find someone else who is excited by the content and is willing to teach it. Another approach is to ask yourself if that lecture is really relevant to the course; (5) don't be afraid to laugh at yourself. Humor is a good way to create a warmer atmosphere and better relations.

If you have organized a student lecture committee, you can integrate some of their suggestions into your presentation. Wilbert J. McKeachie, in *Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College Teacher,* has found that such committees often suggest the following techniques: (1) write a brief outline on the board during the lecture. You can also hand out a printed outline, but students might pay more attention to an outline they copy; (2) summarize important points at the end of a lecture. This also could be done by means of a printed sheet prepared ahead of time; (3) break up lectures with panels, demonstrations, outside speakers, and movies; (4) break the class into rap sessions or task groups. Research has shown that a combination of lectures and discussions are more effective than straight lectures for producing comprehension and problem-solving skills.

HANDOUT NUMBER THREE

TITLE: A Look at Discussion Groups

SOURCE: Steven R. Phillips, based in part on Wilbert J. McKeachie, *Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College Teacher* (Lexington, Mass.: Copyright © 1969 by D. C. Heath and Company).

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This handout discusses several of the most important principles associated with small discussion groups. Though some of these principles may be obvious and even elementary, they are often ignored in actual classroom practice.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: As is the case with many of the other handouts in this chapter, "A Look at Discussion Groups" is most effectively used when faculty can actually try out the topics or skills discussed and can receive feedback from other faculty members and trainers on their performance. Many of the observation instruments presented in Chapter Four can also be useful in such experiences.

A LOOK AT DISCUSSION GROUPS*

I. In *Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College Teacher,* Wilbert J. McKeachie makes the following points about creating effective class discussions:

A. Class discussions are probably appropriate when the instructor wants to accomplish one or more of the following objectives:

1. to use the resources of members of the group;
2. to give students opportunities to formulate applications of abstract principles;
3. to get prompt feedback on how well his objectives are being attained;
4. to help students learn to think in terms of the subject matter by giving them practice in thinking;
5. to help students learn to evaluate the logic of and evidence for their own and others' positions;
6. to help students become aware of and to formulate problems which require information from readings or lectures;
7. to gain acceptance for information or theories counter to folk-lore or previous beliefs of students; and
8. to develop motivation for further learning.

B. One of the reasons discussion often seems ineffective and disorganized is that different members of the group are working on different aspects of the problem and are thus often frustrated by what they perceive as irrelevant comments by other students. One of the ways the instructor can avoid this is to break the problem under discussion into smaller, developmental parts, so that all members of the class are working on the same part of the problem at the same time.

C. There are at least four ways to begin a class discussion:

1. Start a discussion with a concrete, common experience through presentation of a demonstration, film, or role play.
2. Problem posing: begin a class by asking the students to identify as many aspects as possible of the problem or topic under consideration.
3. Begin the class by asking an open-ended question that gets at relationships, applications, or analysis of facts and materials.
4. Start the discussion with a controversy by either causing disagreement among the students over an issue or by stating in an objective manner both sides of a controversial topic.

D. Encourage participation by rewarding infrequent contributors by at least a smile, even if the contribution has to be developed or corrected. Calling students by name seems to encourage freer communication. Seating is important too. Rooms with seats in a circle help tremendously. Getting to know the nonparticipant is also helpful. One of the best ways of getting a nonparticipant into the discussion is to ask him to contribute in a problem area in which he has special knowledge.

*Much of the language in section I of this handout is McKeachie's; no attempt has been made to distinguish his language from various paraphrases and summaries. The material from *Teaching Tips* is copyright © 1969 by D. C. Heath and Company.

E. From time to time during the period, appraise the progress of the class by summarizing its progress, restating the current issue, or pointing out the stumbling block or diversion which has stopped progress.

F. There are a number of barriers to class discussion that need to be avoided:

1. Lack of information: at particular points in the discussion it may be necessary for the instructor to provide needed information which the students cannot be expected to have and which may get the discussion moving again.
2. Ambiguity: the instructor may need to restate a contribution that is unclear or ambiguous and have the restatement confirmed or rejected by the student.
3. Apparent lack of progress: the instructor may need to help the class chart its progress by summarizing or restating the progress to that point.
4. Early closure by the instructor: the instructor may need to avoid telling the students the answer or solution before they have developed some conclusions for themselves.
5. Early agreement: the instructor may need to have the class examine critically early agreement to be sure the group has not settled on common, naive attitudes and values.

G. Disagreements, even when they become heated, must be handled in an objective manner by the instructor, perhaps by listing the pros and cons of an issue on the board.

H. The class may need to examine its own operation so that students can learn to learn through discussion.

1. Time may need to be taken for the group to examine exactly what it is trying to accomplish.
2. Members of the group, including the instructor, should develop a willingness to talk about their ideas openly and to listen and respond to the ideas of others.
3. Students should learn to clarify issues that develop during a discussion and determine what out-of-class study or follow-up is necessary before the class breaks up.
4. Students should learn to develop sensitivity to the feelings of other members of the group; they should become aware of the possibility that feelings of rejection, frustration, and dependence may influence the participation of other members in the discussion.
5. The class as a whole may need to learn to evaluate its own progress and to identify what aspects of their discussion are proving to be worthwhile and what barriers, gaps, or difficulties have developed.

II. Some additional points to consider:

A. What is the objective of the class discussion? What are the goals for the particular class period? Are there other ways to meet these goals more effectively? If the primary purpose of the period is to communicate specific information, perhaps a lecture would be more successful. If extensive participation by all members of the class is desired, perhaps it would be more useful to break the class down into smaller groups for part of the period.

B. Students are reluctant to talk to other members of the class if they do not know each others' names. Not only does sitting in a circle help, but it is also useful if the instructor

calls students by name as much as possible. Although it may seem a bit awkward at first, the use of name tags during the first few weeks can help students learn the names of other members of the class.

C. Even if students know each others' names, they may still resist addressing comments directly to each other. The instructor can help to put students in touch with each other by asking students to comment on each others' remarks and by asking one student to respond directly to another.

D. Besides beginning a class with an open-ended question, the instructor may wish to examine the number of questions he asks during a class that are open, questions which have no specific or single answer, and the number he asks that are closed, that have a particular "right" answer. If he discovers that he is asking a large number of closed questions, he may wish to consider changing his questioning technique or shifting to a straight lecture.

E. Learn to tolerate silence. It may even be possible to legitimize silence by telling the class that an immediate response to a difficult question or new insight is not required.

F. Learn to paraphrase, for not only can this technique help the instructor to understand what a student has said, it can also help the student clarify for himself the exact meaning of his statement or idea.

HANDOUT NUMBER FOUR

TITLE: A Look at Buzz Groups

SOURCE: Steven R. Phillips, from a related handout developed by Tony Grasha, University of Cincinnati

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: As even "small" discussion sections grow to thirty or forty students many faculty who value student participation are finding that they can not get sufficient involvement from that large a number of students. Class "discussions," they realize, have degenerated into a dialogue between themselves and a few vocal students. By dividing the class into smaller groups and giving each a topic to discuss, many instructors have been able to involve students more actively in class discussion, both while the groups are working by themselves and when the groups come back together to share their ideas toward the end of the class.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: Small group discussion is frequently used in faculty development workshops and consequently most participants will have had some experience with this technique. This handout may simply be distributed without comment or be used as the basis of a discussion. Perhaps the participants could be broken down into small groups to discuss how they might use this technique in their own classes. As the handout mentions, if this approach is used, it is most important to draw the separate groups back together again at the end of the session to share their ideas and conclusions.

A LOOK AT BUZZ GROUPS

One way of increasing student participation and actively involving all members of a class in a discussion is to break the class down into smaller groups of between four to seven students. These groups (known as "buzz groups" from the buzzing sound that fills the room when they are talking together) may each be assigned the same topic to discuss or may work on different topics. Buzz groups help students develop collaborative and group problem-solving skills and can provide students with opportunities to integrate course material, as well as formulate applications and generalizations of principles. Students can get responses to their ideas from other students and can learn about the ideas of other members of the class.

The following are some suggestions for the use of buzz groups:

1. Be clear to yourself and your students about why you are using buzz groups as a teaching technique. What are your goals for the course? How does the use of these groups help you meet those goals?
2. Arrangement of chairs in circles helps discussion.
3. Allow students some time to get to know each other. Groups need and will often take time to socialize when they first meet. Groups not allowed this time will usually be less effective. Be sure the students in each group know or learn each others' names.
4. The more specific and clearly stated the question each group is working on the better. Particularly the first few times this technique is used, questions which require the students to list or identify a number of specific issues seem most effective.
5. Assign or have each group pick one member to act as recorder for that discussion; it is his task to report back to the whole class the findings of his buzz group.
6. Sometimes it is effective if each group records its ideas on newsprint.
7. A certain amount of disagreement among students and between students and teacher can stimulate discussion and thought. Do not shut off disagreement as soon as it occurs.
8. The instructor can move between groups during discussions or can leave groups on their own to discuss issues. Which option is chosen depends on the needs of the students and teacher.
9. Groups can work independently for an entire class session or all the groups can convene to share their ideas toward the end of the class. One member from each group can report to the others (possibly followed by more discussion), or the teacher can throw the discussion open for comments from everyone. This sharing of conclusions by the groups, whether at the end of a single class or after several, is essential to correct and clarify the discussions and allow the instructor time to summarize and provide closure.
10. If the same groups are to be used for a number of discussions, it is useful to periodically have each group examine how their discussions are going. Issues such as dissent, conflict, silence, nonparticipation, and quality might be raised. Work with the students or have them work on their own to consider these issues and thus improve their discussions.

HANDOUT NUMBER FIVE

TITLE: Guidelines for Journals

SOURCE: Gerry Perkus, Hartwick College

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Many faculty assign some sort of journal, reaction paper, or intellectual diary in their courses. These journals, however, are often unsatisfactory from the point of view of both the faculty member and the students. Frequently, the expectations of the faculty member concerning the content or form of the journal are not clearly stated or understood; the students are consequently confused and the instructor disappointed. The problems encountered by many faculty members with journals seems to result in most instances either from their inexperience in assigning journals or from their reluctance to structure an assignment that by its very nature encourages individuality, creativity, and even privacy. The following "Guidelines for Journals" has been found useful in clarifying journal assignments or, in some cases, introducing the method for the first time.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This handout is intended for distribution to students, and this point should be noted when given out to faculty. It may be useful to discuss various ways the faculty members in the workshop or seminar have used journals in their own classes to provide a context for this handout.

GUIDELINES FOR JOURNALS

I. Content

The one major requirement is that you must keep coming back to the subject of the course: to your own reactions to the assignments, to class discussion, to conferences, and so forth. You should try to interrelate what you are reading with other things you have read or are reading both in and out of the course. In addition, you may, as often as you like, bring in your own personal experience, either as it is happening, or in recollection. This experience may be related to the readings or it may bear no direct relation to it. Experience, of course, includes thoughts, ideas, concepts, as well as events. You are also encouraged to include your own creative work—poetry, prose, and art and such matter as photos, clippings, letters. Or, if you prefer, you may stick entirely to the content of the course.

II. Procedures

A. Frequency: while you don't have to write every day, the more frequently the better. Each entry can be as short or as long as you like. *Please date each entry.* Regardless of whatever else you include, you must have entries which treat, in some depth, the major topics we cover this semester.

B. Submission: journals will be submitted twice, sometime during the middle of the term and at the end of the term.

C. Format: use a looseleaf notebook for your journal so that you need not stop writing when you submit your entries at midterm. Also, with this type of journal, you will be able to insert and tear out pages as you wish.

D. First and Last Entries: *Your first entry* should say something about yourself, where you are right now with relation to your educational and life goals, what you hope will happen in this course, and so forth. *Your last entry* before submission *both* at midterm and at the end of the term should be in the form of a *summary* or *synthesis* statement ranging over your journal to that point and placing the earlier entries in some kind of perspective. In a *separate final entry,* you should write an evaluation of the course and your own participation in it—what worked well for you, what didn't work well, what suggestions you would make for the future, and anything else you would like to say.

E. You should provide a *Table of Contents* of your entries each time you submit the journal. This table should include date of entry and a pithy one- or two-sentence characterization of the nature and content of the entry.

III. Evaluation

The journal will be evaluated primarily on the quality of your exploration of the course material and its relation to your own intellectual and personal growth. Some *general* criteria will include the following:

- concreteness versus vagueness
- probing versus superficiality
- use of detail, richness, vividness
- ability to generalize significantly from reading and experience, to tie things together
- discrimination and subtlety versus grossness and imperceptivity
- sustained development of an idea
- ability to compare and contrast ideas and experiences
- increase over time in perception, awareness, powers of observation
- creativity, imagination
- facility in discerning what is happening within yourself
- application to the journal, willingness to work at it
- ability to subordinate trivia to what is significant

FURTHER READINGS:

For discussions of educational methodology, as distinguished from the educational technology surveyed at the beginning of this chapter, see among many others, Philip Runkel, Roger Harrison, and Margaret Runkel, *The Changing College Classroom* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1967); Carl Rogers, *Freedom to Learn* (Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1968); Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, *Teaching as a Subversive Activity* (New York: Delacorte, 1969); and Ohmer Milton, *Alternatives to the Traditional* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972). Finally, although it is mentioned several times in the preceding handouts, Wilbert J. McKeachie's *Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College Teacher* (Lexington, Mass.: Heath, 1969) is again highly recommended for both experienced and beginning teachers.

Chapter Seven

Organizational Development: An Overview

A faculty member seeking to develop an innovative course based on new perceptions of student needs, faculty roles, and institutional objectives will often encounter the powerful and demobilizing resistances of his colleagues. Even the best planned instructional or faculty development program will frequently run aground at this point. Like the junior corporate executive who returns from a two-week sensitivity training session to find that his new skills are neither understood nor accepted by his colleagues, the faculty member who has just returned from an exciting week-long workshop on faculty development will often be immediately confronted with barriers of skepticism, suspicion, and open hostility. Even a faculty development program which is not based on workshops but rather tries to work within the system will encounter organizational resistance if it is all successful. Ironically, the success of many faculty development programs can be measured in their early stages precisely by the degree of resistance they encounter. To expand the instructional roles, skills, and/or resources of the institution, the structures of that institution will be placed under stress, and individuals who view themselves as the protectors of these structures will be threatened.

A faculty development program must, therefore, deal directly with the organizational issues that are associated with change. With a few notable exceptions, these issues have not been systematically confronted by higher education. These exceptions include the work of Walter Sikes, Yellow Springs, Ohio,[1] of Jack Lindquist at the Strategies for Change and Knowledge Utilization Program, Saratoga Springs, New York, and of several instructional development centers around the country, such as the Institute for Research and Training in Higher Education at the University of Cincinnati (Tony Grasha, Director); the Center for Instructional Resources at the University of Massachusetts (Sheryl Riechmann, Director); the Office of Staff and Organizational Development at Miami-Dade Community College (Carol Zion, Director); the Center for Institutional Renewal, College Center of the Finger Lakes (Evelyn Wood, Director); and the Center for Improving Teaching Effectiveness at Virginia Commonwealth University (John F. Noonan, Director).

Organizational development has been widely used in primary and secondary education. The writings of Richard Schmuck and his colleagues at the Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, however, would seem to be directly relevant to organizational development in higher education,[2] as are the writings of Ronald Havelock at the Center for Research and Utilization of Scientific Knowledge,[3] University of Michigan. Similarly, the writings of organizational development consultants who have worked primarily in business or government should also be applicable to higher education,[4] though there are significant differences in the ways these organizations function and respond to change efforts.

In the three chapters of this section, we will focus on three closely interrelated aspects of organizational development: team-building, decision-making, and conflict-management. Each of these aspects is closely related to and helps determine the effectiveness of the other two functions. Decision-making, for instance, can be conducted most effectively if the organization adopts methods and relevant norms for the management of conflict. Similarly, team-building is a useful precursor of conflict-management, and an organization that has adequately addressed the

problems associated with decision-making will have at least indirectly dealt with issues of conflict-management and will probably also have conducted informal team-building.

A fourth aspect of organizational development is managerial training. It is also an important component of faculty development. Managerial training, however, will not be treated in a separate chapter of this handbook, for to do justice to this complex topic would require a complete handbook itself. In the present context we can only point to the importance of this area of faculty development and suggest several directions in which a faculty development consultant might turn to acquire skills or assistance in this area.

First, it should be noted that managerial development is often among the least threatening of the various components of faculty development for most faculty, especially if it is being offered to their department chairmen rather than to themselves. Management development is widely accepted because it has a great deal of validity with reference to the daily functions of most departments. Most managerial training programs at least touch on such important areas as fiscal planning, administrative procedures, and nonacademic personnel management.

Of the various managerial approaches which seem to be particularly appropriate to higher education, management by objectives (MBO) clearly stands out.[5] Given the diffusion of mission and goals in most academic departments, an MBO program may be particularly helpful in providing clarity and consistency to often chaotic management.[6] The Managerial Grid[7] and Teleometrics programs (Conroe, Texas) also provide valuable and somewhat different types of training resources to academic administrators, though these programs are primarily designed for corporate executives. Similarly, many of the executive-level management training programs of the National Training Laboratory (Washington, D.C.) are of potential use to either the college administrator or faculty member.

A management development program might alternatively focus on the financial aspects of administration. The chairman or other administrative members of the department can readily benefit from training in the management of budgets. With the increased emphasis in higher education on fiscal accountability, and with the availability of new cost-finding instruments such as the RRPM programs of the National Center for Higher Education Management Systems (NCHEMS),[8] department chairmen and other academic administrators may want to avail themselves of fiscal management training. NCHEMS (Boulder, Colorado) currently offers training programs throughout the country in the use of their planning and management systems instruments.

Though the relevance of management training to a faculty development program may not seem to be immediately apparent, with some reflection on the connections between the several components of faculty development, the direct relationship of fiscal management to faculty development becomes clear. Many instructional innovations, for instance, have profound implications in terms of costs per unit of instruction; conversely, an initial concern for budgetary matters or management by objectives often leads to an increased concern about the organization's capacity to deal effectively with conflict and the processes of decision-making. The chapters in this section provide concepts and tools that can be used in response to these latter problems.

NOTES:

[1] For an example of their approach, see Walter W. Sikes, Lawrence E. Schlesinger, and Charles N. Seashore, *Renewing Higher Education from Within* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974).

[2] See Richard A. Schmuck and Matthew B. Miles, *Organization Development in Schools* (Palo Alto, Calif.: National Press

Books, 1973) and Richard Schmuck and others, *Handbook of Organization Development in Schools* (Palo Alto, Calif.: National Press Books, 1972).

[3] See Ronald G. Havelock, *The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1973), and Ronald G. Havelock, *Planning for Innovation* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, 1973).

[4] See, for example, Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Berne, and Robert Chin, *The Planning of Change* (New York: Holt, 1969); Richard Beckhard, *Organization Development: Strategies and Models* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969); and Wendell L. French and Cecil H. Bell, Jr., *Organization Development* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973).

[5] Peter Drucker, *The Effective Executive* (New York: Harper and Row, 1967); George Odiorne, *Management Decisions by Objectives* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1969); John W. Humble, *Management by Objectives* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970); and Robert E. Lahti, *Innovative College Management* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973).

[6] In particular, see the last book referenced in the previous note.

[7] R. R. Blake and J. S. Mouton, *Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development* (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1968) and, by the same authors, *Building a Dynamic Corporation Through Grid Organization Development* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969).

[8] See also L. Richard Meeth, *Quality Education for Less Money* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974) and William A. Shoemaker, *Systems Models and Programs for Higher Education* (Washington, D.C.: Academy for Educational Development, 1973).

Chapter Eight

Team-Building

During the past decade many organizations in this country have recognized the value of team-building as a way of increasing the effectiveness of any task group, especially if this group must function over a short period of time as a "temporary society."[1] Team-building for an academic organization, as for any task group, can improve the capacity of the group to make decisions and manage conflict. Team-building, it should be noted, does not directly provide the skills that enable members of an organization to make decisions or manage conflicts, but it can create a supportive organizational climate in which these skills, once acquired, can be fully employed.

Team-building in an academic setting might consist of discussions within a department about the future directions the department should take or about departmental roles. Members of a department might discuss with the department chairman the ways in which each of them helps or hinders departmental functioning. Alternatively, team-building might incorporate an extensive organizational diagnosis by an outside consultant. The information that is collected by this consultant might be presented at the start of a weekend retreat; the rest of the weekend would be set aside for reactions to the information. Plans may then be developed to eliminate or minimize organizational characteristics which the members do not like. At a different level, a team-building effort often focuses on the emotional climate of a group. Members of a group are encouraged to establish more open and meaningful contacts with their colleagues as a means of breaking down the barriers often associated with the isolation of college teaching. In summary, a team-building effort requires an academic organization to pause in its current deliberations in order to focus on its own structure, operations, and climate.

Team-building has not been widely used in academic organizations. This component of faculty development is often threatening to many faculty and may be erroneously viewed as irrelevant to the improvement of instruction. Team-building should not, therefore, usually be among the first services that a faculty development program offers, unless it is viewed by faculty as being particularly relevant to the improvement of instruction. An academic department, for instance, that can not make an important decision concerning pressing curricular matters might be assisted by a faculty development consultant, or a college which is undergoing a reorganization of its academic departments might profit from team-building.

Effective consultation on the processes of team-building in an organization requires not only access to instruments and handouts like those presented in this chapter but also a sensitivity to the various stages through which groups continuously move as they accept new members, embrace new missions, and adopt new norms. One of the simpler, but nevertheless useful, models of small group development has been offered by Bruce Tuckman,[2] who has articulated a concept of the changes that occur in group behavior, in both social and task areas, across all group settings, over time. In brief, Tuckman's developmental model consists of four stages which can be conveniently labeled "forming," "storming," "norming," and "performing." Following is a brief description of each stage.

A. Forming

Stage one focuses on the processes of testing and dependence. The term "testing" refers to an

attempt by members of the group to discover what interpersonal behaviors are acceptable in the group, based on the reactions of other group members and significant authority figures in that particular situation. In a new and unstructured setting, group members tend to look toward experts, helpers, and respected colleagues for guidance and approval. This dependency is often expressed in the newly formed group's immediate reliance on standard procedures, like Robert's Rules of Order, and already established leaders, people who have served in this role in previous, unrelated groups.

At the task level, stage one groups are primarily concerned with becoming oriented to the task; that is, becoming familiar with its dimensions and with the alternative methods that are available for its accomplishment. The group must decide upon the type of information they will need in dealing with the task and how this information is to be obtained. In other words, the ground rules of the task must be discovered.

B. Storming

The second stage tends to be characterized by intragroup conflict. Group members become hostile toward one another and toward the current leaders or authorities. They want to express their individuality and resist the formation of group structure. Interaction is uneven and "infighting" is common. There are characteristic key issues that polarize the group, which usually center on conflict over progression into the "unknown" of interpersonal relations. The result is often a retreat to the security of earlier dependency.

During this second stage, group members tend to react emotionally to the task as a way of resisting its demands on them. Even in working on impersonal, intellectual tasks, a group, in a subtle way, will struggle over issues of control and conformity.

C. Norming

The third phase of group functioning centers on the development of group cohesion. The group becomes an entity by virtue of its acceptance by its members; they desire to maintain and perpetuate the group and have established new norms which can ensure the group's uniqueness and continued existence. Harmony is of maximum importance, and task conflicts are avoided to ensure harmony. During this stage, task performance continues to play a secondary role, though the increased openness and trust among group members allow for a freer exchange of information and ideas.

D. Performing

The fourth and final phase of group development centers on the capacity of the group to respond to the demands of a variety of tasks with flexible group roles. The group, which was established as a unique entity during the norming stage, can now become a problem-solving unit. The role of each member in the group is no longer an issue but is instead an instrument which can be directed at the task. In this phase the group's structural and task dimensions come together; form and function become one.

By analyzing the stage at which a group is currently operating, it is possible to define more clearly the type of team-building activities that might be most appropriate. A group which is still in a forming stage will probably benefit from team-building activities that focus on the acquaintance process and help provide a clear definition of the dimensions and desired outcomes of the tasks which the group confronts. Conversely, a group in the storming stage will benefit most from

an open discussion of the conflicts that they are experiencing and from a focus not on the task but on the group structure and functions as they produce or at least contribute to the conflict being experienced by the group.

A team-building activity for a group in the norming stage might consist of activities which focus on the group's definition of its own unique mission, strengths, style, and so forth. It is also important in working with a stage three group to redirect their attention toward the task; otherwise, this type of group easily stagnates in a continuing state of enforced goodwill (the "country-club" mentality of many long-term task groups). The performing group is probably not directly in need of team-building but instead can use some help in the development of such task-related skills as planning, administration, and communication. The materials that have been included with this chapter can be useful in dealing with many different kinds of groups at any of these four stages.

NOTES:

[1] Warren G. Bennis and P. E. Slater, *The Temporary Society* (New York: Harper, 1968).

[2] Bruce W. Tuckman, "Developmental Sequence in Small Groups," *Psychological Bulletin*, 63 (1965), 384-399.

HANDOUT NUMBER SIX

TITLE: Effective Group Process

SOURCE: John L. Wallen, Neotsu, Oregon

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: "Group process" is a term which is often misused, seldom understood, and rarely considered in discussions of task groups. This handout provides several useful ideas about how to make groups more effective. John L. Wallen, the author of this handout, presents his ideas in a clear, straightforward manner which appeals to many faculty who ordinarily oppose the often vague statements associated with an orientation toward interpersonal interaction or group process.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This handout can be distributed before or at the start of a team-building workshop. It also can be used in faculty development seminars or workshops that focus on the instructional use of discussion groups or team projects, or on various aspects of organizational development.

EFFECTIVE GROUP PROCESS

I. Basic Assumptions

A face-to-face group is more than a collection of individuals. It is a social system in which all members are interdependent, whether or not they wish to be or are aware that they are. Interdependence means that each member influences and also is influenced by what occurs in the group.

Members cannot help influencing each other; members cannot avoid communicating. An effort not to communicate itself becomes a communication. Suppose that Jim wishes not to influence the other group members. He becomes silent. Jim's silence will be interpreted as expressing anger, agreement, boredom, fear, disapproval, or interested attention. Jim's effort to avoid communication has, in fact, resulted in many different messages. Each member is influenced by what he reads into Jim's silence.

Because members cannot help influencing each other, each member needs to know the effect produced by his actions if he is to become able to participate in the ways he desires. If a member does not know the effect of his actions, he cannot judge whether he has influenced others as he intended.

Groups cannot avoid making decisions. When a group is faced with a problem or an issue it always makes some decision. The group can only choose *how* to make the decision; *whether* to make a decision is not an option.

Groups make decisions in two basic ways; (1) by public agreement, or (2) by failing to reach public agreement, that is, by default. Thus, if a group faces the issue of whether to admit more members, it may fail to reach public agreement to admit more members. The effect on the size of the group is exactly the same as if the group had publicly agreed *not* to add more members. In this sense, then, we can say that the group has decided not to admit more members. Groups, thus, can and do make decisions by default that satisfy none of the members and yet are carried out by all.

Because groups cannot avoid making decisions, it is useful to view what happens in the group concerning what the group has decided to do. Whatever occurs in the group fulfills some function for the group members. We might almost say that whatever happens is what the group wants to happen. Let's suppose that Jim continually introduces irrelevant points into the discussion. He can change the subject only if other members follow his lead. Other members might welcome his digressions if they were bored with the topic, feared they were getting close to open conflict, or wanted to prevent a certain decision from being agreed on. So if the other members follow Jim's irrelevancy, it would be accurate to say that the group wants to change the subject, rather than to say "Jim changed the subject." If constant topic-jumping was recognized as a group problem, the group should inquire into "What does it mean that we keep changing the subject?" rather than into "What's wrong with Jim that he changes the subject so much?"

Likewise, the person who talks excessively, jokes too much, continually attacks others, or withdraws and doesn't participate, is a sign of a problem shared by the whole group. The group needs to ask why they have trouble dealing with this behavior. "What does our decision to permit such behavior accomplish for this group?"

Group members might imagine a sign reading, "WHAT WE ARE NOW DOING WE HAVE DECIDED (OPENLY OR BY DEFAULT) TO DO. DOES IT MOVE US

AWAY FROM SOMETHING WE WISH TO AVOID OR TOWARD SOMETHING WE WISH TO ACHIEVE?"

II. Questions to Ask about a Group's Interpersonal Process

A. Do seriously intended contributions fail without responses? A speaker needs to know the effect of his remarks so that he can compare it with what he intended. When others do not respond the speaker cannot know whether the other members

1. did not hear him;
2. did not understand him;
3. understood and agreed with him;
4. understood and disagreed with him;
5. understood but thought it irrelevant; or
6. felt uncomfortable because of the issue he raised.

B. When a complicated, unclear, or controversial comment is made does the group check to make sure it understands what the speaker means before agreeing or disagreeing?

C. Does each member state his personal reactions as his own rather than giving the impression he is speaking for the group? Unless each person speaks for himself the group cannot take his views and feelings into account.

D. Are all contributions viewed as belonging to the group to be used or not as the group decides? A member who makes a suggestion should not have to justify, defend, or become an advocate. All members should take responsibility for evaluating the suggestion as the property of the group.

E. When the group has trouble getting work done does it try to find out why? Symptoms of difficulty are:

1. excessive hair-splitting or nit-picking;
2. the same points are repeated over and over;
3. suggestions are not even considered;
4. private conversations take place in sub-groups;
5. two or three members are doing nearly all of the talking;
6. members take sides and refuse to compromise;
7. ideas are attacked before they are completely expressed; or
8. there is apathetic participation.

When such symptoms occur the group should shift from working on the task to discussing the interactions and feelings of members about what is going on.

F. Does the group bring conflict into the open and deal with it? Because of the differences among individuals conflict is inevitable. The group can only choose whether the conflict will be open and, thus, subject to group control, or disguised and out of control.

G. Is conflict approached as a topic for joint inquiry into "What is best for us to do in this situation?" rather than as a competitive struggle to prove "Who is right and who is wrong?"

H. Does the group make important decisions by open agreement or by default? When a

group views each decision as a provisional trial which can be carried out, evaluated, and revised in the light of actual experience it is easier to make decisions than when each decision is required to be so perfect that it can stand forever without change. When the group agrees on a decision which it does not carry out, it should recognize that the *real* decision was one not to act, although the *apparent* decision was to act. The group should openly discuss why the apparent and the real decisions were not the same.

I. Does the group use different ways to make decisions depending upon the time available, the kind of issue, and the importance of the outcome? A group may vote, delegate the decision to a certain person or subgroup, flip a coin, or discuss until they reach complete consensus. The crucial factor is that the group has complete consensus on the way used to make the decision in each case.

INSTRUMENT NUMBER ELEVEN

TITLE: Group Expectation Survey

SOURCE: John L. Wallen, Neotsu, Oregon

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: The norms of a group are often difficult to identify and are rarely openly discussed, even though they play a significant role in the determination of not only group processes but also of group productivity. The "Group Expectation Survey" tests several important group norms and, specifically, the extent to which members of a group will disclose important information about or reactions to group events.

This survey instrument also generates an interesting analysis of an individual's expectations about his own behavior and about the behavior of other group members. Frequently, members of a group taking this instrument will indicate that they want to report their reactions in a group candidly, yet do not expect other members to do the same. Similarly, group members often report that they want to know of the reactions of other group members, yet believe that other group members do not want this information.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This instrument should be given to a group which has been in existence for at least six hours. After the instrument is filled out by each member, the mean scores for each survey item should be determined and then presented to the group. The group may want to discuss several implications to be derived from this data:

1. Do members of the group want the current level of disclosure to remain as it is, or do they want it to change?
2. How were the current norms established? What would be the consequences of changing these norms?
3. How can these norms be changed?

GROUP EXPECTATION SURVEY

Directions: Before each of the items below put a number from the following rating scale that best expresses your opinion *at this time*.

RATING SCALE

5 = any member of this group
4 = any except one or two members of this group
3 = a slight majority of the members of this group
2 = slightly less than half of the members of this group
1 = one or two members of this group
0 = none of this group

How many members of this group do you expect will candidly report the following information during future group sessions?

..... 1. When he does not understand something you said?
..... 2. When he likes something you said or did?
..... 3. When he disagrees with something you said?
..... 4. When he thinks you have changed the subject or become irrelevant?
..... 5. When he feels impatient or irritated with something you said or did?
..... 6. When he feels hurt—rejected, embarrassed, or put down—by something you said or did?

To how many members will *you* candidly report the following information during future group sessions?

..... 7. When you do not understand something he said?
..... 8. When you like something he said or did?
..... 9. When you disagree with something he said?
..... 10. When you think he has changed the subject or become irrelevant?
..... 11. When you feel impatient or irritated with something he said or did?
..... 12. When you feel hurt—rejected, embarrassed, or put down—by something he said or did?

In your opinion, how many in this group are interested in knowing . . .

..... 13. When you do not understand something he said?
..... 14. When you like something he said or did?
..... 15. When you disagree with something he said?
..... 16. When you think he has changed the subject or become irrelevant?
..... 17. When you feel impatient or irritated with something he said or did?
..... 18. When you feel hurt—rejected, embarrassed, or put down—by something he said or did?

From how many members of this group are you interested in knowing . . .

..... 19. When he does not understand something you said?
..... 20. When he likes something you said or did?
..... 21. When he disagrees with something you said?
..... 22. When he thinks you have changed the subject or become irrelevant?
..... 23. When he feels impatient or irritated with something you said or did?
..... 24. When he feels hurt—rejected, embarrassed, or put down—by something you said or did?

INSTRUMENT NUMBER TWELVE

TITLE: Group Perception Survey

SOURCE: John L. Wallen, Neotsu, Oregon

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Team-building often results from increased sharing of information among group members about not only their reactions to the processes of the group but also their impressions of how other members of the group are reacting to these same processes. John Wallen has designed a brief instrument which:

1. asks members to describe their reactions to the current session;
2. asks members to indicate how they think other members will describe their reactions; and
3. provides feedback to each member concerning discrepancies between their predictions of how other group members would react and their actual reactions.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This instrument should be distributed near the end, but not at the end, of a group meeting. Members of the group should all have freely agreed to participate in the use of this instrument with full knowledge of each step to be taken in the information collection and analysis procedure. This instrument is more valuable when used with groups of six to fifteen members.

Following are the steps to be taken in using this instrument:

1. Distribute the "Group Perception Survey" to each member. Ask each member to answer the questions numbered 1 through 8 by checking either "yes" or "no" in the first column.
2. Ask each member to answer the questions numbered 1A through 8A. Each member is to estimate how many other members have marked "yes" to each question.
3. Collect all of the questionnaires and tabulate the total number of "yes" responses to each question, or, if the group exhibits a high level of trust, ask each member to indicate his response aloud, tabulating the responses on a blackboard or newsprint.
4. Redistribute questionnaires. Ask each member to record the total number of "yes" responses to each question in Column Two. Then instruct them to subtract the smaller number, which may be in either Column One or Column Two, from the larger number, which again may be in either column. That number is recorded in Column Three.
5. The members may be asked to total the numbers in the third column. Those with the lowest totals had the most accurate estimates of how the other members' scored their questionnaires.
6. Ask the group members to discuss significant over or under estimates of group members' reactions, both to individual questions and to total scores, as well as personal reactions to the group meeting. Try to steer the group away from arguments about the *validity* of a specific perception and focus instead on its *causes* and *consequences.*

In using this instrument, one must assume that group members will honestly indicate their reaction to the group session. Since the procedure just identified *can* ensure that each individual response will not be seen by the other members without permission, this honesty may often be expected. To the extent that the group members' reactions seem dishonest and not compatible with the behavior that is observed in the group, then the group consultant or leader, after summarizing the results, may want to direct the attention of the group toward identification of the discrepancies between the ratings and observed behavior, as well as toward identification of possible reasons for this discrepancy. A low level of trust will invalidate this instrument and hence its use in such a group would be inappropriate.

GROUP PERCEPTION SURVEY

Name: _____

Answer all questions on the basis of the most recent session of this group.

		Column One	Column Two *Actual number of Yes*	Column Three *Over or under estimate*	
1.	Did you have enough opportunity to talk during this session?	YES (.....) NO (.....)			
1A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to question 1	(.....)	– (.....)	= (.....)	1
2.	Are you satisfied with the attention and consideration the group gave to your comments?	YES (.....) NO (.....)			
2A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to question 2	(.....)	– (.....)	= (.....)	2
3.	Do you think this group has an "ingroup" to which you feel you do not belong?	YES (.....) NO (.....)			
3A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to question 3	(.....)	– (.....)	= (.....)	3
4.	Did you have feelings of irritation or impatience as a result of what was going on in the group that you did not openly describe?	YES (.....) NO (.....)			
4A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to question 4	(.....)	– (.....)	= (.....)	4
5.	Did you feel hurt, embarrassed, or put down by somebody without letting the other know?	YES (.....) NO (.....)			
5A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to question 5	(.....)	– (.....)	= (.....)	5
6.	Did you agree with or like something another member said or did without letting the other know?	YES (.....) NO (.....)			
6A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to question 6	(.....)	– (.....)	= (.....)	6
7.	Do you think the staff member was helpful to this group during this session?	YES (.....) NO (.....)			
7A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to question 7	(.....)	– (.....)	= (.....)	7
8.	Was the experience and learning you gained from this session well worth the time, effort, and cost?	YES (.....) NO (.....)			
8A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to question 8	(.....)	– (.....)	= (.....)	8

FURTHER READINGS:

A general description of team-building may be found in Wendell L. French and Cecil H. Bell, Jr., *Organization Development* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973), Chapter Ten, pp. 112-120. For a useful discussion of a team approach to change in colleges and universities, see Walter W. Sikes, Lawrence E. Schlesinger, and Charles N. Seashore, *Renewing Higher Education from Within* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974). Also of value are Richard Beckhard, "The Confrontation Meeting," *Harvard Business Review*, 45 (April, 1967), 149-155, and numerous articles on team-building to be found in the *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*.

Chapter Nine

Decision-Making

Academic organizations have never been noted for the efficiency of their decision-making procedures. Numerous committees, with shifting memberships and often vaguely defined areas of responsibility, meet seemingly endlessly; decisions appear somehow to be made, either to be overturned by other committees, or to be redecided all over again at subsequent meetings. After several years of such experiences, the exhausted faculty member may well side with T. S. Eliot's J. Alfred Prufrock, when he muses

> There will be time, there will be time
> To prepare a face to meet the faces that you meet;
> There will be time to murder and create,
> And time for all the works and days of hands
> That lift and drop a question on your plate;
> Time for you and time for me,
> And time yet for a hundred indecisions,
> And for a hundred visions and revisions,
> Before the taking of a toast and tea.[1]

It is little wonder that many faculty members describe their committee assignments as the most frustrating and unpleasant aspect of their work.

Yet decision-making is central to an effective institution and to an effective faculty development program. If decision-making procedures remain misunderstood or, in many cases, unchanged, little improvement can be expected in the important decisions effecting teaching that are made at the departmental, divisional, and institutional level. This chapter addresses the issue of decision-making by presenting two general theories and three exercises that have been found useful for training in decision-making. Like effective teaching, effective decision-making is something that can be learned.

The two theories of decision-making discussed below have been chosen because of their particular usefulness for academic institutions. The first, based on a belief in the value of consensus, can be useful to decision-making in the small groups characteristic of many departments, committees, and subcommittees, while the second, based on a dynamic conception of group functioning, can be helpful in understanding and maintaining effective decision-making in even fairly large groups. Together, they form an approach to decision-making that can provide a strong theoretical basis upon which to build a training program.

A. An Approach to Consensus Decision-Making[2]

1. Basic Assumptions

In a group decision-making situation, there are present two major concerns: first, there is the concern for the adequacy of the decision to be made and, second, there is the concern for the degree of commitment the group will have to the decision once it is made. "How good is this decision?" "How many members of this group are behind this decision?" These are the two basic concerns of an effective decision-making group. Moreover, the degree of emphasis that an

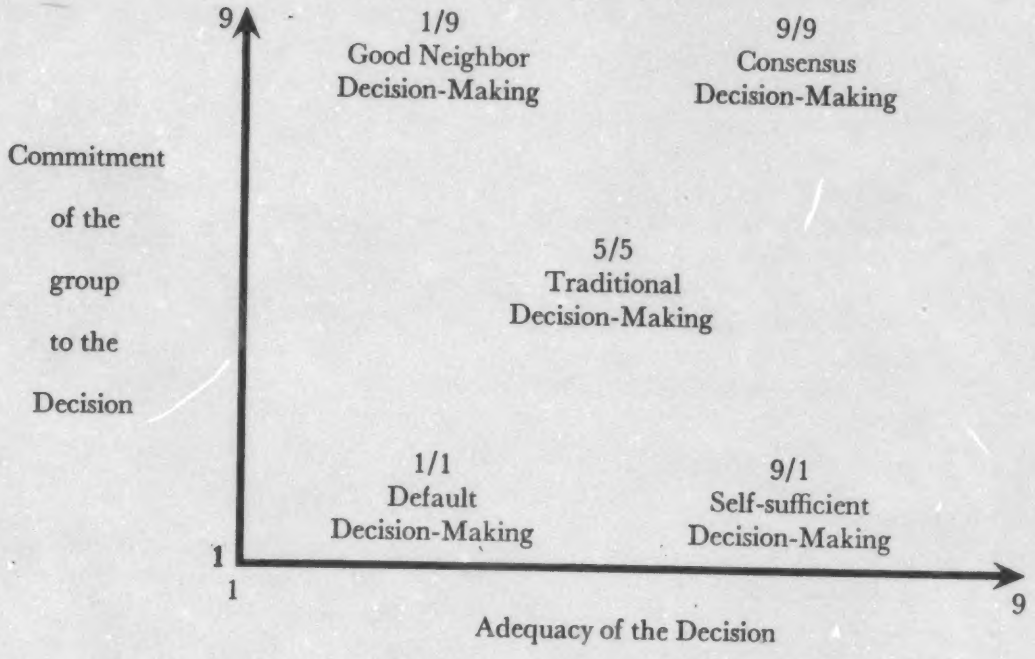
individual or a group gives to the issues of adequacy and commitment can effectively describe their orientation toward decision-making and toward the kind of decisions they are likely to reach.

2. The Decision-Making Grid

If we assume that the concern for the adequacy of a decision and the concern for the commitment of the group to the decision are independent of each other (that is, that a high degree of concern for one does not of necessity indicate a high degree of concern for the other), then we can provide a conceptual framework for dealing with particular approaches to decision-making by projecting these concerns as the horizontal (adequacy) and vertical (commitment) axes of a decision-making grid. Each axis is scaled from one to nine to indicate the degree of emphasis placed on that particular concern. Thus, a nine on the horizontal axis would indicate a maximum degree of concern for the adequacy of the decision, while a one on the vertical axis would indicate a minimum concern for the commitment of the group to that decision. Within this decision-making grid it is possible to identify five major approaches to decision-making as indicated on figure one and as discussed below.

FIGURE ONE

THE DECISION-MAKING GRID



3. Four Limited Approaches to Decision-Making

The four approaches described below will be familiar to many who have served on academic committees. In various degrees they are based on power, conflict, manipulation, and numbers; none is based on a belief in consensus.

a. Self-Sufficient Decision-Making

The self-sufficient or 9/1 decision maker expresses a maximum concern for adequacy and a minimum concern for commitment. He is confident in his own ability as a decision maker, and it is always the facts (as he sees them) that dictate the nature of the decision. For him, a group is simply not a good place to make a decision; if the decision is an excellent one, he reasons, the group will probably go along with it but, in any event, it is the quality of the decision that is most important.

The 9/1 decision maker functions as if the final responsibility for the decision were his and his alone. His operation in the group is based on power; to the extent that he has formal or informal power his ideas will be reflected in the final decision. If he is without power he may soon become frustrated and withdraw, either physically or psychologically, from the group.

b. Good Neighbor Decision-Making

At the opposite pole from the 9/1 position is the 1/9 or good neighbor decision maker, the person who expresses a minimum concern for the adequacy of the decision and a maximum concern for the commitment of the group to the decision. The primary value for the good neighbor is harmony and understanding within the group. Underneath this apparent assumption of openness and trust, however, there often lies an actual mistrust by the good neighbor of his own powers in a decision-making situation and, most significantly, a fear of conflict. For these reasons the 1/9 decision maker emphasizes a superficial sort of togetherness that avoids the confrontation and conflict necessary for adequate decision-making. If this conflict nevertheless does break out, the good neighbor, like the frustrated 9/1, may physically or psychologically withdraw from the decision-making process.

c. Default Decision-Making

Essentially, default or 1/1 decision makers avoid making decisions. Often this position is a reaction to the stress of group decision-making. The powerless 9/1 and the frightened 1/9 are often found here. The 1/1 decision maker is not interested in either the adequacy of the decision or in the commitment of the group to the decision. Most frequently he is operating out of conformity, self-protection, or both.

d. Traditional Decision-Making

The traditional or 5/5 decision maker expresses an equal concern for adequacy and commitment. However, he usually sees these concerns not as complementary but as standing in opposition to each other; in other words, he does not believe that a group can make an excellent decision that will at the same time produce a high level of commitment. Essentially the traditional decision maker is more concerned with the adequacy of the decision than with the group's commitment to it, but he realizes he may need to trade off and compromise to get enough support within the group. Usually that support takes the form of a numerical majority; the decision is most often made by a vote. Consequently, the 5/5 decision maker spends much of his effort to build that support, which of course reduces the time he can spend on the adequacy of the decision itself.

4. Consensus Decision-Making

Each of the four approaches to decision-making described above assumes that adequacy and commitment are irreconciliable and that a group can not produce a decision that is at the same time a good one with a high degree of group support. The consensus or 9/9 decision maker, on the other hand, expresses a maximum concern for both adequacy and commitment. He believes that the best decision can be reached if all the resources of a group can be used. Consequently, he strives for a high level of involvement from all of the members of the group and sees the group as a good place to make decisions. He sees conflict as a source of new ideas and not something to be avoided. If everyone can be involved in the decision, he believes, then not only will the decision be the best one possible but it will also have the greatest degree of support. Genuine consensus will produce the best possible decisions.

Consensus decision-making has a number of advantages over other approaches. Although the time necessary to reach a decision by consensus will be greater than the time a self-sufficient decision maker will take, over the long run the consensus approach will save time; the 9/1 decision maker finds himself making the same decisions over and over while a decision made by consensus will tend to stand up over time. Moreover, once a group has established a pattern of consensus decision-making, it often finds that subsequent decisions come quicker and easier. Once a decision is made by consensus, of course, its implementation is assured, while decisions reached on a 9/1 basis have no such group commitment behind them. Even decisions reached by a majority vote may be difficult to implement, for the assumption that the minority, once voted down, will cheerfully support the majority position is often dubious. Finally, because a group using a consensus approach to decision-making is one that is aware of its own process, only it can learn from experience. 9/1 decision makers are constantly engaged in power struggles, 5/5 decision makers in developing majority support; each new decision is a new power struggle, a new vote.

5. Summary

Consensus decision-making is difficult and, initially, time consuming, but its results, in the long run, are worth the effort. Moreover, it can be learned; if decision makers and decision-making groups genuinely wish to become more effective, they can become aware of their own processes and can find in consensus decision-making a viable alternative to other patterns.

B. The Task, Method, Process Approach to Group Functioning

The way a group functions plays a crucial role in any decision-making situation. Whether decisions are to be made by consensus or majority vote, there are a number of issues at work in a decision-making group that can help or hinder effective decisions. The following theory, originally developed by Frederick R. Fosmire and John L. Wallen, provides a way of identifying and examining those issues and then presents some suggestions for the establishment and maintenance of an effective decision making group.

1. Basic Assumptions

A group of individuals convened to accomplish a specific task or reach a specific decision must, in addition to completing that task, successfully address themselves to issues that develop in the group which may at first seem unrelated to the task or decision at hand. These concerns may be seen as internal to the group's functioning, as opposed to those external concerns associated with accomplishing the task. Two kinds of issues may develop in a task group: those

which focus on the method the group uses to work at the task, and those which emerge from and are related to group process and interpersonal relations. To function effectively at performing the demands of the task and to reach effective decisions concerning that task, a group must deal successfully on a continuing basis with the method and process issues associated with the task.

2. Task, Method, and Process

Task issues are those which are directly related to accomplishing the goals mutually and explicitly defined by the group as its reason for being.

Examples of task issues:

a. Which of these proposals will most effectively solve the problem?
b. Shall we approve this new course?
c. What will be our criteria for judging whether or not this project is successful?

Method issues are those which specifically focus on the means by which the group will work at the task.

Examples of method issues:

a. How are we going to make decisions in this group?
b. How do we insure that the opinions of each member of the group are given an adequate hearing?
c. How long should this meeting last?

Process issues are those related to both the relationships developed through working on the convening task and in establishing methods for working on that task, and to personal feelings which members may have brought into the group or developed during its meetings.

Examples of process issues:

a. I feel isolated from this group and hurt by the apparent lack of concern of other members.
b. I really enjoy working with members of this group.
c. Jim and Susan never seem to pay attention to me when I express an opinion they don't agree with.

Task, method, and process issues are closely interrelated and tend to stimulate each other. For example, a group may be having a great deal of trouble arriving at a satisfactory decision-making procedure; this looks like a method issue. However, if what is blocking the group is a contest for leadership and influence between two members of the group, the issue is actually one of process, and no amount of work at the method level will resolve the difficulty. Both method and process concerns may be disguised as task work, with the group struggling to reach a decision on a task issue while process difficulties build up and multiply.

3. Interrelationship between Task, Method, and Process

The issues surrounding method discussions are central to the task and process dimensions of group functioning. Effective methods allow for both satisfactory performance on the task and high group morale. A decision, for instance, which, after careful deliberation about alternative choices, has the support of all or most members of the group will usually be a good decision, as well as being one which all members of the group are committed to implementing. Similarly, the task and process dimensions of group functioning are closely interrelated. If the group does not succeed in solving task problems and moves toward implementing good task decisions, its members either develop negative feelings toward the group, thus further impeding success at

the task, or begin to distort reality by creating scapegoats, denying failure, and so forth. A group with serious and unresolved process problems rarely performs effectively at the task level. Disaffected members sabotage the task as a way of dealing indirectly with their neglected process needs.

4. Use of Task, Method, Process in a Decision-Making Group

An effective decision-making group will usually begin its work at the method level: it will decide how it is going to decide. Consideration will also be given to immediate process issues; the group may wish to deal with personal goals related to the task, with interpersonal difficulties some members bring into the group from previous contact with the same people, and with issues of inclusion and influence. If method decisions are appropriate to the group and task, and if the process issues are dealt with, the group will spend most of its time working effectively at actually making decisions. Most decision-making groups, however, have a tendency to begin their work at the task level and to remain there. Method and process concerns, as they emerge, are seen as disagreements over the decision, to which the response is frequently to push harder at trying to make the decision. As the group continues to beat its head against the task wall, process issues emerge in more or less undisguised form: "That's what you said the last time, and look what happened!" "You male chauvinists just won't accept any idea from a woman, will you?" At this point, without rapid group attention to the neglected process and method issues, the group is dangerously near dissolution.

An effectively operating group will tend to work at all three levels at different times. When issues cannot be easily resolved at the task level, the group will move rapidly to consideration of its methods to determine if those are what are impeding reaching a decision. Inadequate problem resolution at this level may indicate a need for the group to shift its attention to the feelings, personal goals, and relationships in the group.

5. Summary

Moving through task, method, and process issues may occur during a period of several hours, days, or even years. Initially the process is a self-conscious one, and it may feel artificial to group members. Over time, as the group develops, the process becomes more natural and efficient; members acquire skills at diagnosing the level of group difficulty and in directing the group's attention to their perceptions. In a decision-making group with a very long life, like a major committee working together over several months or years, effective group methods become fairly stable, so that unless the composition of the task or the group changes radically, there is less need for constant re-examination. Similarly, relationships stabilize, and there are fewer process problems arising from the need to negotiate satisfactory relationships within the group. A group can therefore work most effectively if it can remain flexible, so that it can move easily from task to method and process issues, and if it can come to believe that the observation and analysis of the group process is of value, so that the group can move to the appropriate level with a minimum of failure and trial and error learning.

NOTES:

[1] T. S. Eliot, *The Complete Poems and Plays, 1909-1950* (Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.: New York, 1952); reproduced by permission of Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

[2] This section on consensus decision-making is based on an article by Jay Hall, Vincent O'Leary, and Martha Williams titled "The Decision-Making Grid: A Model of Decision-Making Styles," which appeared in the *California Management Review*, 7 (1964), 43-54. This article was in part based on R. R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton's *The Managerial Grid* (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964).

EXERCISE NUMBER FIVE

TITLE: Observation of Small Group Decision-Making

SOURCE: Adapted by Frederick R. Fosmire from concepts developed by Jane Mouton.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Members of groups are often unaware of how decisions are made; if they are they may well lack a common vocabulary to describe that process. The purpose of this exercise is, first, to provide a shared vocabulary about decision-making and, second, to give participants in the exercise the opportunity to observe a group actually making a series of decisions.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The leader of the exercise may begin with a short lecture on decision-making based on the following description of "How Groups Make Decisions," or he may simply hand out copies of the description to each participant and ask them to read it. Once the various ways decisions can be made are clear to the participants, the leader asks a number of them to form a decision-making group. While that group is receiving instructions on its task (both Exercise Number Six and Seven have proven useful for this task), the leader distributes the "Decision-Making Observation Form" to the remaining participants. The decision-making group then carries out its task under the observation of the rest of the participants. Once the task is completed, the observers report their observations to the decision-making group; the leader may then generate a general discussion of decision-making.

Variations:

1. Members of the decision-making group do not see the handout on "How Groups Make Decisions" until they have completed their task.
2. The decision-making task may be stopped from time to time to allow the observers to give the group information about its decision-making procedures.
3. If a large number of participants are involved, several task/observer groups can be formed and may compete with each other.
4. The decision-making group may be video taped and the replay incorporated into the feedback process.

HOW GROUPS MAKE DECISIONS

Decisions can be made and identified in a number of ways; perhaps the simplest way of describing decisions is to see if they are made by the minority or by the majority. The following are brief descriptions of different kinds of minority and majority decisions.

I. Minority Decisions

PLOP. A plop results when a group member makes a suggestion which meets with no response from the group as a whole. It falls, "plop." Not only is there no recognition or evaluation of the suggestion by the group, but the individual who offered the suggestion feels he has been ignored and possibly rejected. He feels that no one will listen to him.

SELF-AUTHORIZED DECISIONS. This occurs when a group member suggests a course of action and immediately proceeds upon that course on the assumption that since no one disagreed, the group has given its approval. Such action can lead a group down blind alleys. Even if the rest of the group agree with the decision, they may resent the way it was made, and no one knows how much support the decision will receive from the other members of the group.

HANDCLASP. A suggestion made by one member elicits a reaction of support and permission to proceed from another. The group is launched into action without adequate testing as to whether the proposal is acceptable to the group as a whole. The handclasp between two or three is evident in cliques that form within the group and is a powerful method of control of the group. It often results from the failure of some members to meet their responsibility to the group by speaking up, voicing their opinions, keeping the group on target, and insuring that alternatives are considered.

KILL. A suggestion offered by one member of the group is rejected at once, either by one or more of the powerful members of the group or by the group as a whole.

MINORITY SUPPORT. A minority of the group ramrods a decision or suggestion into group action which the majority does not support. This leads to little future support by the group as a whole for the action taken.

II. Majority decisions

SIMPLE MAJORITY. A common method of determining a majority support decision is by voting. Many groups make the mistake of assuming that simply because a majority supports the decision the minority will come along *willingly*. Often they may appear to do so, but frequently they resent the action and give no more than token support.

NEAR CONSENSUS. Groups which really try to avoid the pitfalls associated with the plop, self-authorized, handclasp, kill, minority, and simple majority decisions often try to include every member in the final decision. All members may agree, but some may have serious reservations regarding the decision and, although promising support, often withdraw support at crucial times.

TRUE CONSENSUS. All members have contributed to the decision or feel that their contributions have been given a fair hearing and are more satisfied with it than with any of the other alternatives which were considered. Under this procedure, the probability is greater that a decision will emerge which has given proper weight to the significant conditions affecting the decision and as such gains greater combined support from all members of the group.

DECISION-MAKING OBSERVATION FORM

Proposals are always made by an individual member. Control of the direction in a group is the result of what happens to proposals and suggestions.

Your job is to record whether *each* proposal is used or not used and how that decision was made.

I. Proposal was used, carried out:	Tally	Total
1. Self-authorized by initiator.		
2. Handclasp; support of one member's proposal by one or two others.		
3. All members polled by either "Does everyone agree?" or vote taken.		
4. Consensus; action taken only after each member has openly stated his agreement.		

II. Proposal was not used, not carried out:		
1. Plop; nobody reacted to the suggestion; it just died.		
2. Killed by one or two members; the suggestion is rejected at once.		
3. All members polled or vote taken.		
4. Consensus; action rejected only after each member has openly stated his willingness to reject the action.		

EXERCISE NUMBER SIX

TITLE: Discovery

SOURCE: A modification by William H. Bergquist of a VOCOM (Vocal Communication) procedure and exercise developed by Fred Fosmire and Lee Brissey, University of Oregon.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: "Discovery" requires a small work group to determine the shape of an unknown, nonrandom pattern on an 18x18 square grid. A number of decisions must be made in the completion of the task, first by trial and error and, later, by inference; consequently, the exercise provides for both the experience and observation of decision-making.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: Small groups of participants are formed and one is designated the judge for that group. Observers for each group are also identified and may receive the material contained in Exercise Number Five. All participants, including the judge, receive copies of "Discovery." A blank 18x18 grid and a marker are placed before them; only the judge receives a copy of the "Key."

After the completion of the task the participants receive feedback on the decision-making patterns they displayed during the exercise.

Variations:

1. Competition can be set up between the separate groups of participants by stopping the exercise from time to time and listing the number of correct and incorrect squares each group has identified by that point. The score of each group would be determined by subtracting the number of errors from the number of correctly identified squares; the group with the highest score would be the leader.
2. A time limit for the exercise may be imposed.
3. The exercise may be stopped from time to time for the participants to receive feedback on their progress and decision-making from the observers.
4. Each participant is observed by a particular observer and receives direct feedback on his decision-making style.
5. After the completion of the exercise, the observers and participants switch roles and the new players complete a second decision-making task like Exercise Seven.

DISCOVERY

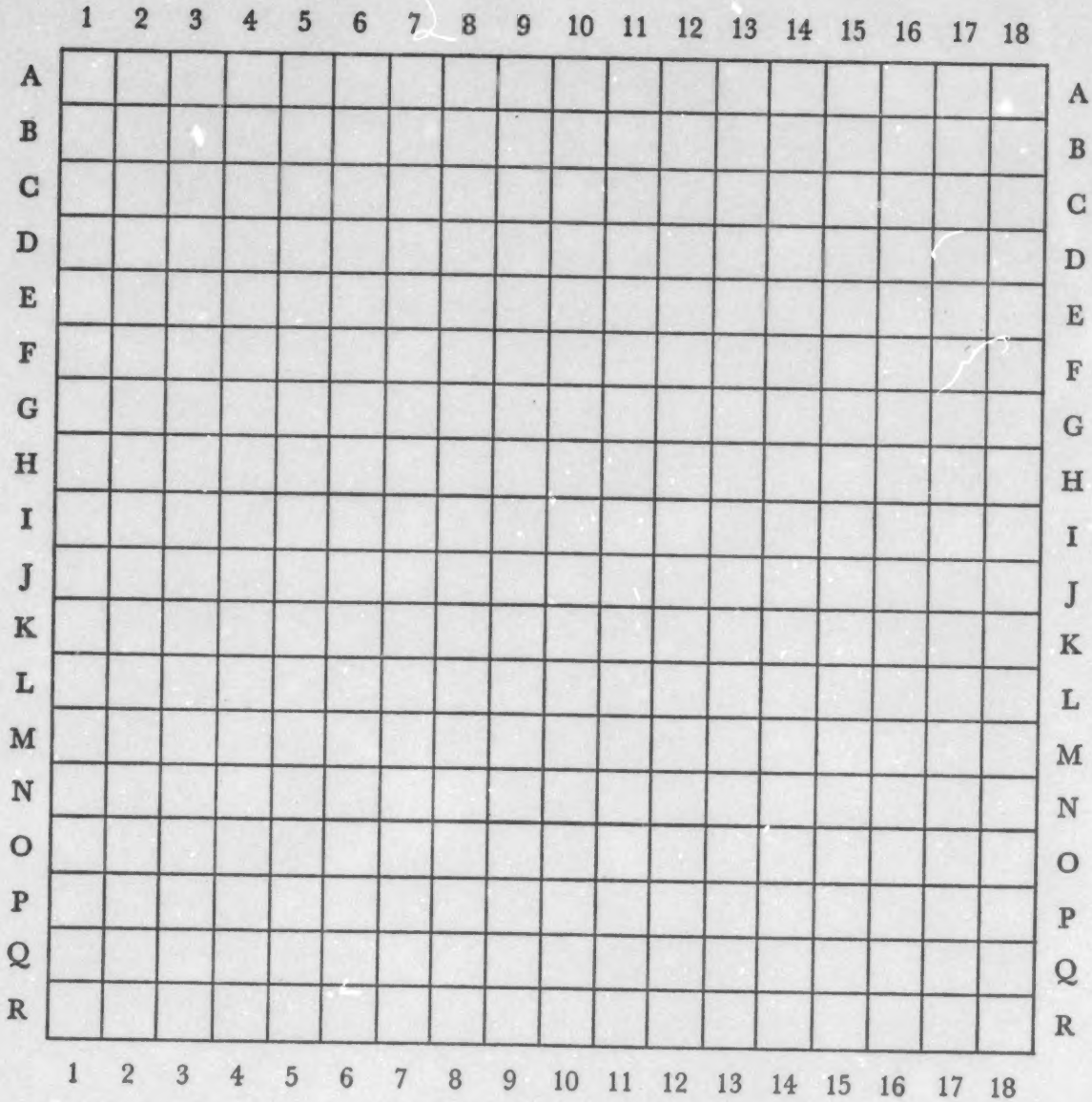
You have been presented with a sheet of paper on which is printed an 18x18 square grid. Each square on the grid can be identified by a letter and a number. Another person, who will be the judge for your team, has been given an identical grid. Some of the squares on the judge's grid, however, have been filled in; these are called closed squares. Other squares have been left open. There is an arrangement of closed squares on the judge's grid that is not random.

Your task is to determine which squares on the judge's grid are closed. This is done by first placing an "x" in one of the squares on your own grid and then indicating to the judge which square you have marked. If you have made a correct choice, that is, if you have marked a closed square, the judge will say "right." If you have made an incorrect choice and marked an open square, the judge will say "wrong."

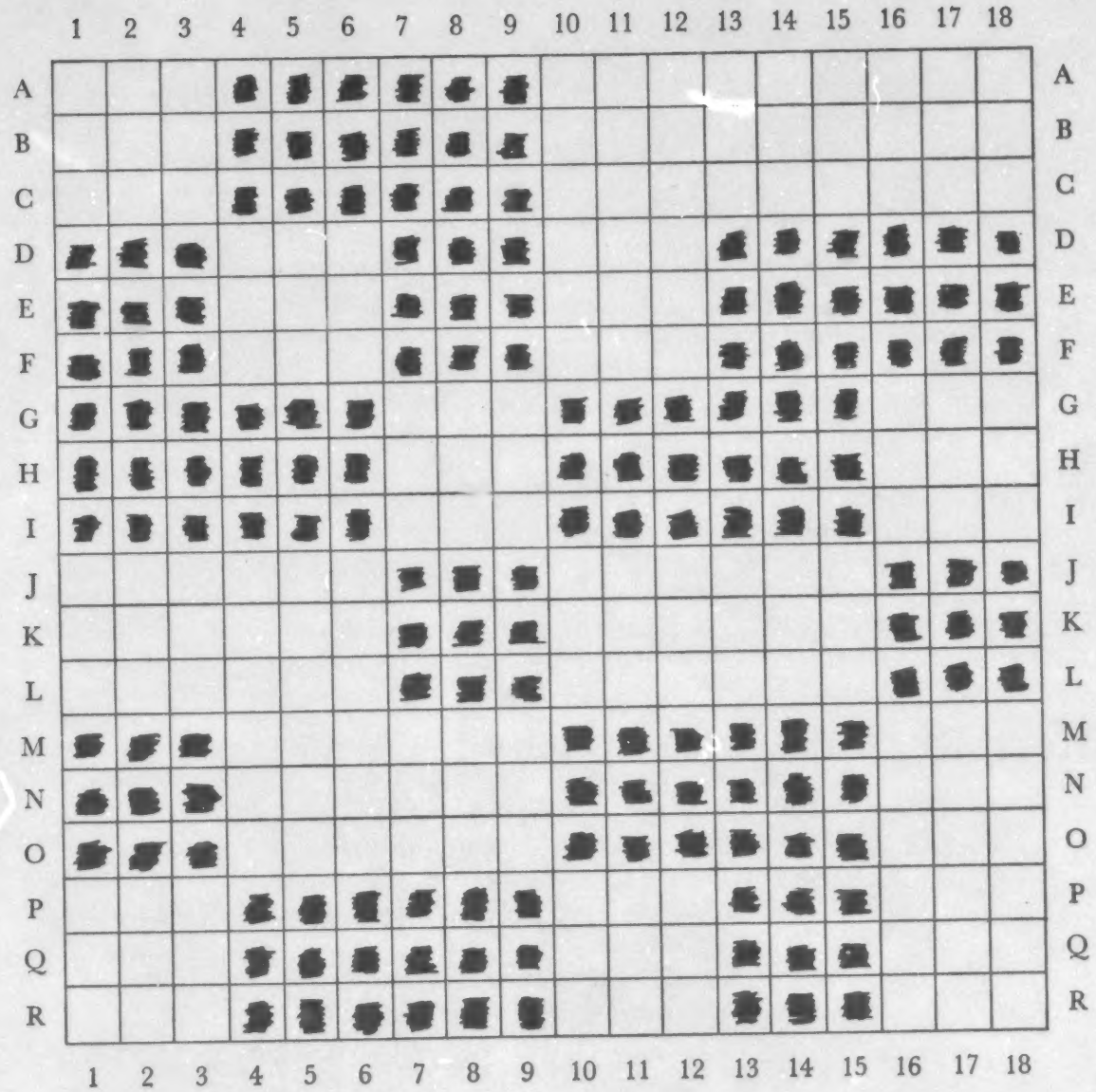
In locating the closed squares, you should try to make as few mistakes as possible. However, you should try to locate *all* of the closed squares and not discontinue your efforts until confident that you have completed this search.

Your performance will be judged on the basis of (a) errors of commission (open squares that were selected as closed squares) and (b) errors of omission (closed squares that were not identified). You may take as much time as you wish on this task. Indicate to the judge when you wish to stop.

Do you have any questions?


1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18
A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R

DISCOVERY
KEY



EXERCISE NUMBER SEVEN

TITLE: Astronaut

SOURCE: A modification by William H. Bergquist of a VOCOM procedure and exercise developed by Fred Fosmire, University of Oregon.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: "Astronaut" places a team of five participants in a simulated crisis situation, for that team must cross a generally unknown and extremely treacherous expanse of territory on a distant, unexplored planet. To cross this terrain, the team must pool the limited and partial information of each of its members and make a number of crucial, life and death decisions. Astronaut is designed both to allow the team members an opportunity to explore their own decision-making styles and to provide a task situation which can be observed by other participants.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The session begins with the distribution of copies of "Astronaut" to all participants. After they have read the description of the exercise, and after all questions have been responded to, the leader asks for five volunteers, who should then be seated together in a group. The leader places before them a blank grid (which should be reproduced from Exercise Number Six) and a marker. Each of the five team members receives one of the five maps, which he has three minutes to memorize. At the end of that time the leader collects the maps and the team begins its task.

Either the leader or one of the other participants receives the "Key" and serves as judge, indicating correct and incorrect squares and enforcing the various rules of the game. When the exercise is over, either through the elimination of all team members or the successful attainment of the goal by one or more, the leader directs a discussion of the decision-making patterns that emerged during the exercise.

Variations:

1. The five volunteers are collected before they see "Astronaut."
2. The five team members have time to decide how they will approach the task before they receive the five maps.
3. The team is observed by another group, which gives the team feedback on its decision-making procedures, either at the end of the game or periodically during it.
4. Each team member is observed by a particular observer and receives direct feedback on his decision-making style.
5. If a large number of participants are available, several teams may be formed; these teams may work in competition with each other.

ASTRONAUT

You are invited to engage in a fantasy of the future. Imagine yourselves as a team of astronauts who have just landed on an unknown planet orbiting around a distant star. Your team has been given the assignment of collecting samples of a particular mineral that might be a rich new energy-source for our civilization on earth. This mission is, in the words of your director, "worth the sacrifice of human lives."

This latter statement was made for very good reason, for you have landed in a very hostile environment. The ground on which you must walk (cross-country flight is impossible in this highly turbulent atmosphere) is very treacherous. In most instances, the ground is only a thin cooling crust over molten lava. Fortunately, instruments are available to assist you in determining which ground can or cannot support the weight of an astronaut. Furthermore, you have two lightweight jet packs that can be used to fly the whole team at low altitude over ground that can't provide adequate support.

While flying to the planet you were able to obtain five different readings of ground-stability. Each reading accurately maps ground-stability for part of the region on which you have landed. Each of you will receive a copy of one of these five maps, reproduced on an 18x18 square grid. Those squares on the grid that are filled in represent stable ground. Those squares that are not filled in represent ground that is either unstable (cannot support 100 lbs.) or unknown; you have no information about the stability of this ground, though another member of your team may have this information.

While these maps are useful to you, a crisis has occurred. The maps were reproduced on a material that disintegrates within three minutes in the highly toxic atmosphere of this planet. Thus, while each of you have had an opportunity to look at one map for three minutes, the maps are not available for future reference by yourself or other members of the team.

Given this background, let's look at the task before you. The members of your team must reach your final location, the mineral source. You can reach this location by traversing an area of land that is highly dangerous and which is represented by the blank grid that has been placed before your team; you must proceed square by square through this area. You will each be given three minutes to look at one of the five maps. You must commit the information on this map to memory, for you will not be given another chance to see it. The map will contain information on some of the squares that are safe, for those safe squares will be filled in. This information may or may not overlap with information on the other four maps.

As a team, you are to combine information from the five maps in order to determine the correct route from start (landing place) to finish (location of minerals). When you wish to begin moving from the start, place a mark ("x") on the first square from which you wish to proceed. The member of your team who places a mark on the page, however, is, in effect, "placing his life on the line." If the square is, in fact, "not safe" (as indicated by the judge) then the team-member who made the mark ceases to exist; he falls into the molten lava. He can no longer participate on the team and must make no further contributions (either verbal or nonverbal). If the square that your team chooses is correct, then you may proceed through this square to the next. If your choice is wrong, then you must either choose a new direction (a new adjacent square) or use one of the two jet packs to fly your entire team over this square (you can indicate this flight by a circle rather than an "x"). Since you have only two available jet packs and can thus mark only two circles on the grid, they must be used quite sparingly. (Note: even with a successful use of the five maps, there may be some unknown areas or areas

of unstable ground through which you must move with the aid of the jet packs). Your task then is to reach the final location while preserving the lives of as many team members as possible. Keep several things in mind:

(1) You must proceed through adjacent squares; diagonal movement is not allowed. You cannot leap over any square, except with the aid of a jet pack.

(2) When your team marks an "x" in a "right" square, your entire team moves to this square and is then ready to make a decision concerning the next square.

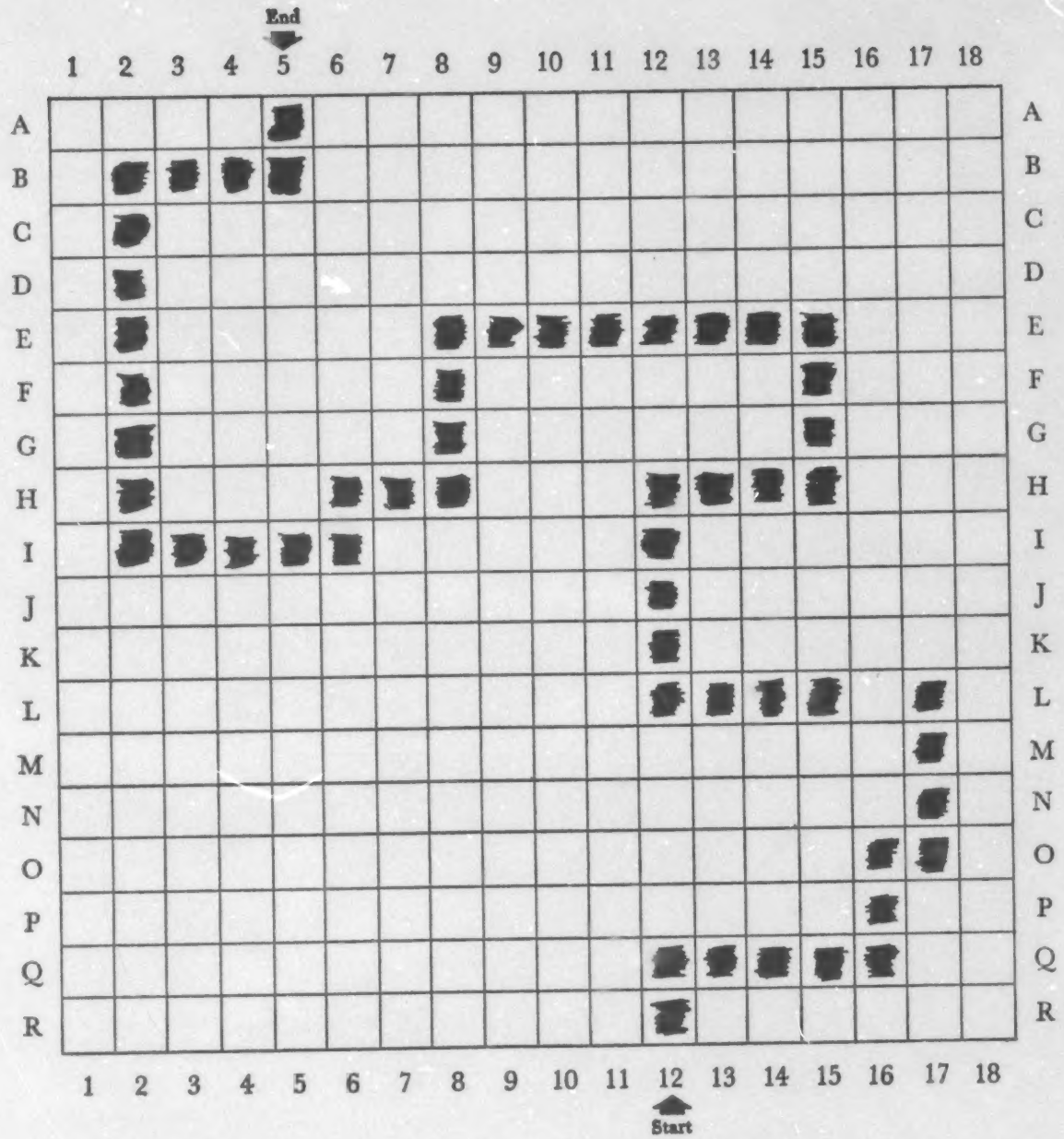
(3) When your team selects a "wrong" square, the team member placing the mark in the square will be eliminated. At this point, you must make a new selection, proceeding from the preceding correct square. Alternately, you may choose to use a jet pack in order to fly over the incorrect square.

(4) Each of your two jet packs carries the entire team, but only one person is to place an "x" in the square to which you have flown. If the square is incorrect, that person is eliminated and the remaining members of the team are back on the last correct square.

You may take as much time as you wish. You may *not* copy your maps in any form or make any extraneous marks on the blank 18x18 grid that has been placed before you.

Do you have any questions?

ASTRONAUT
KEY



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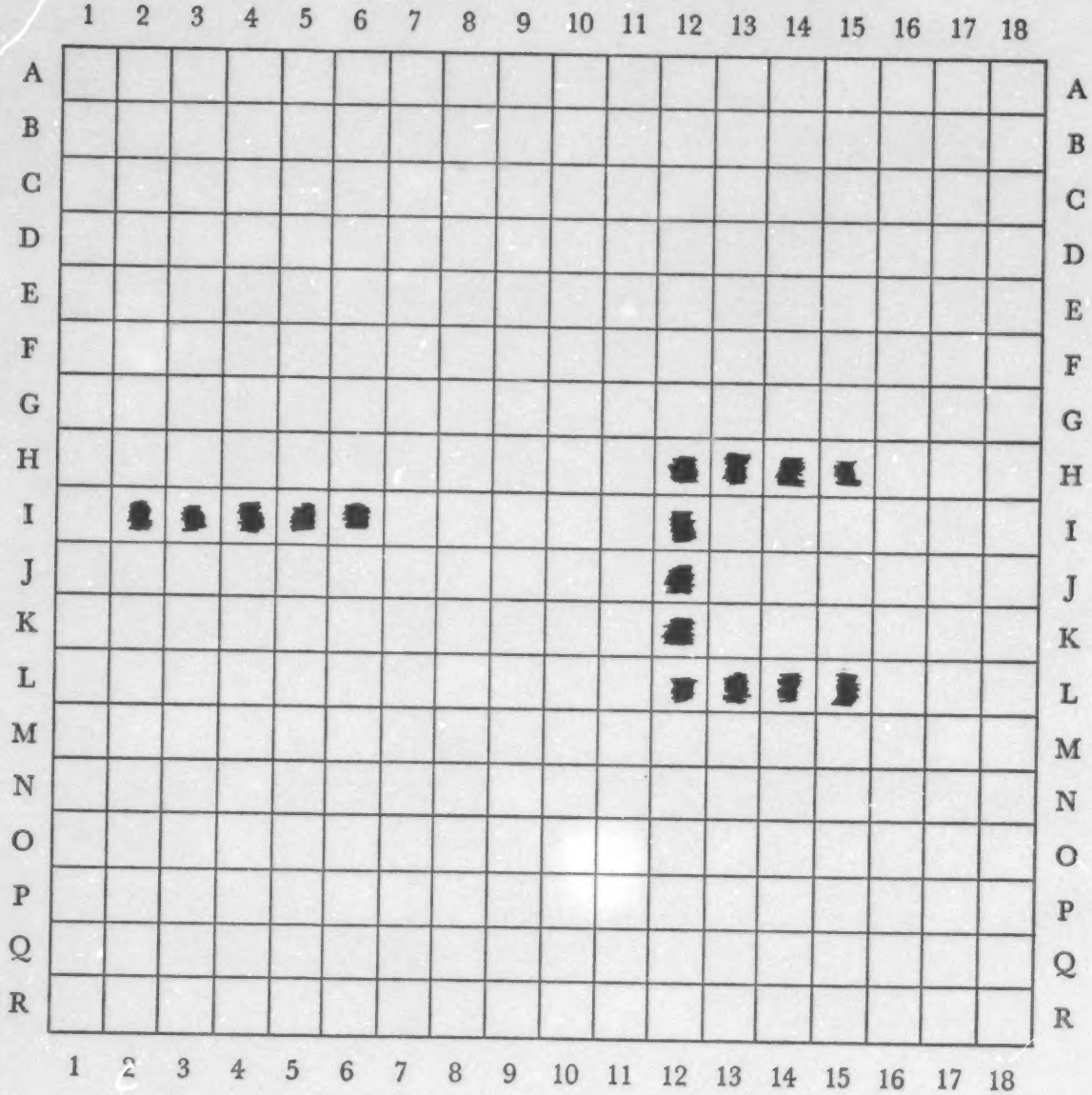

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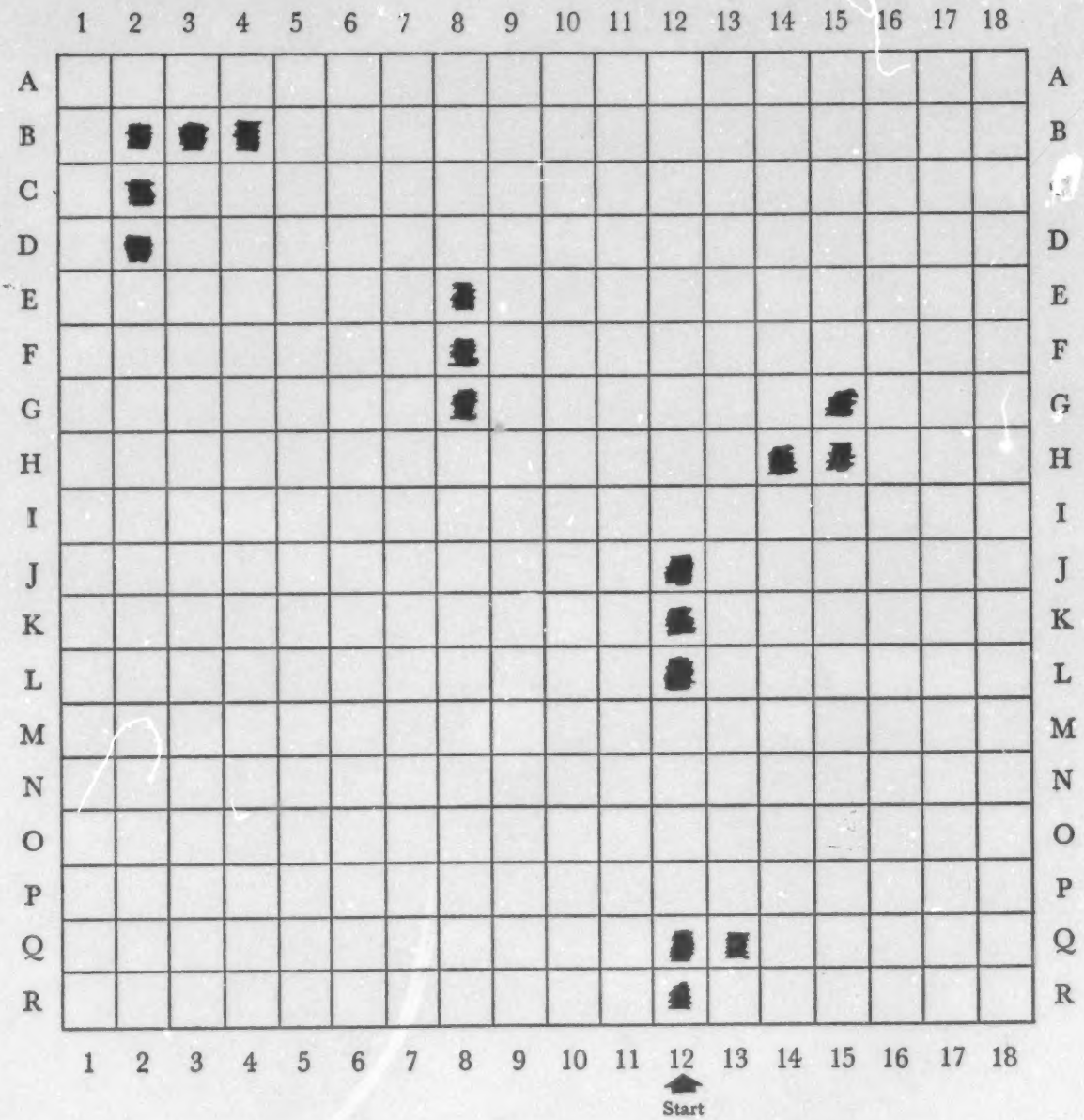

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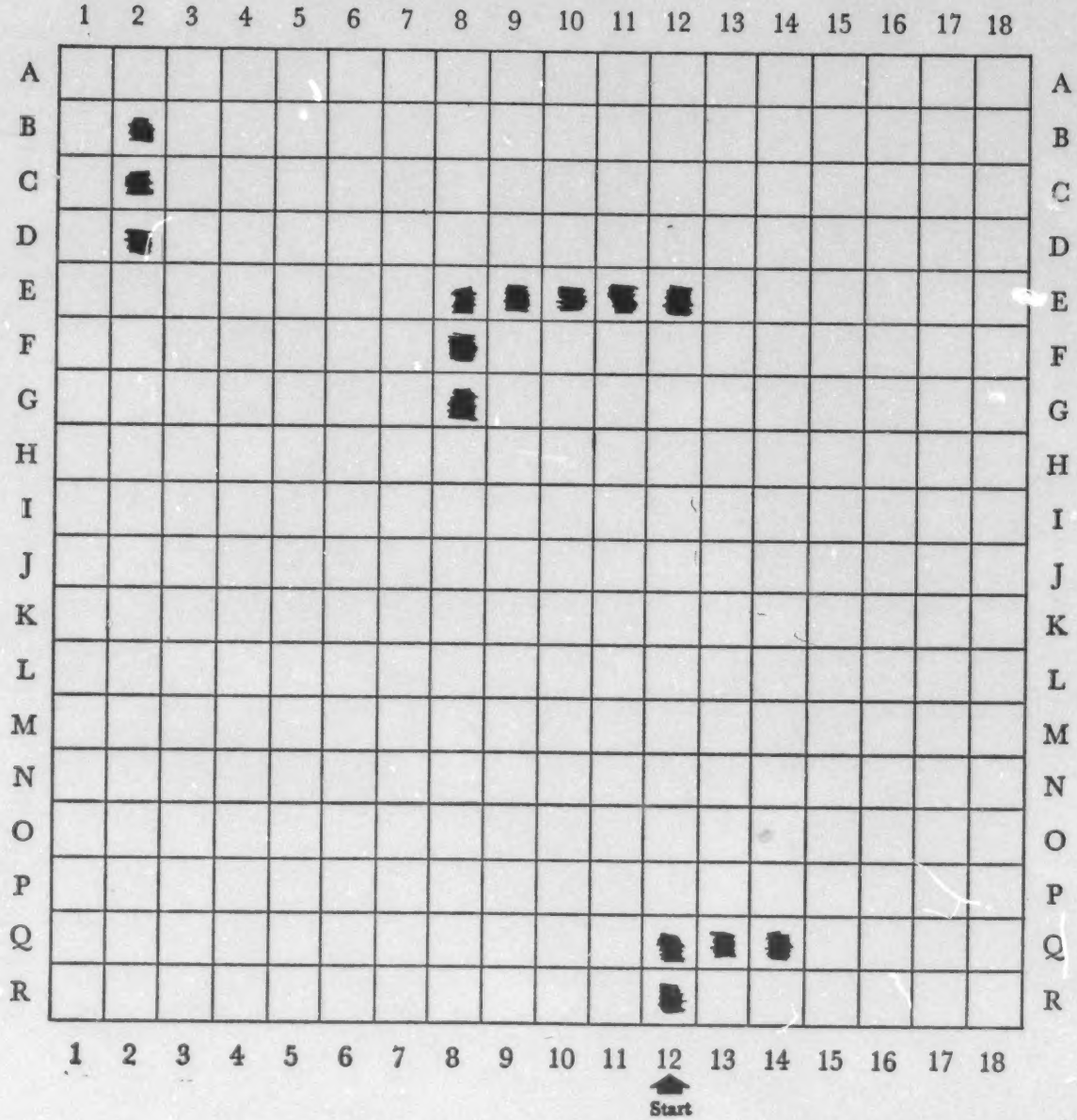

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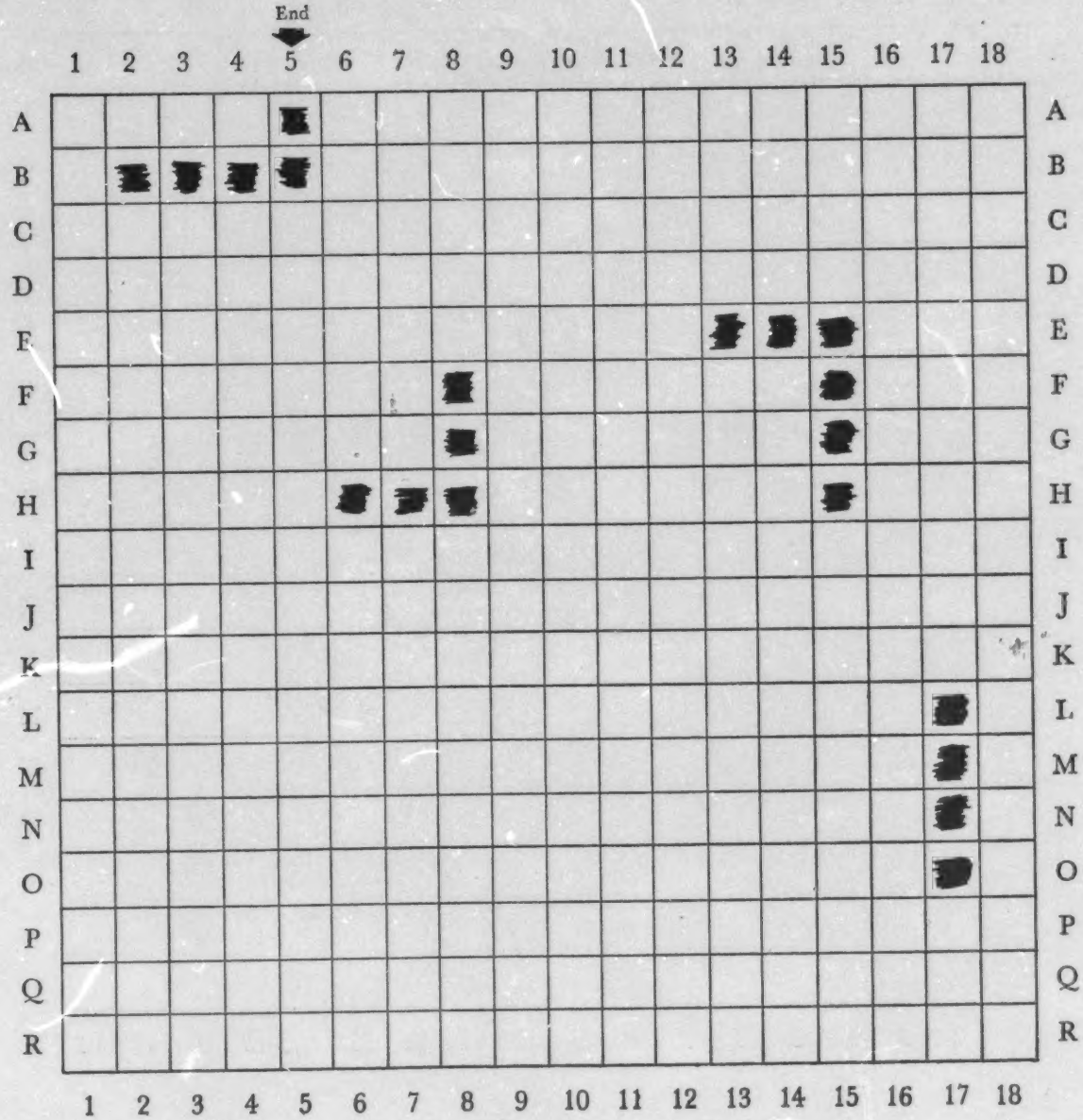

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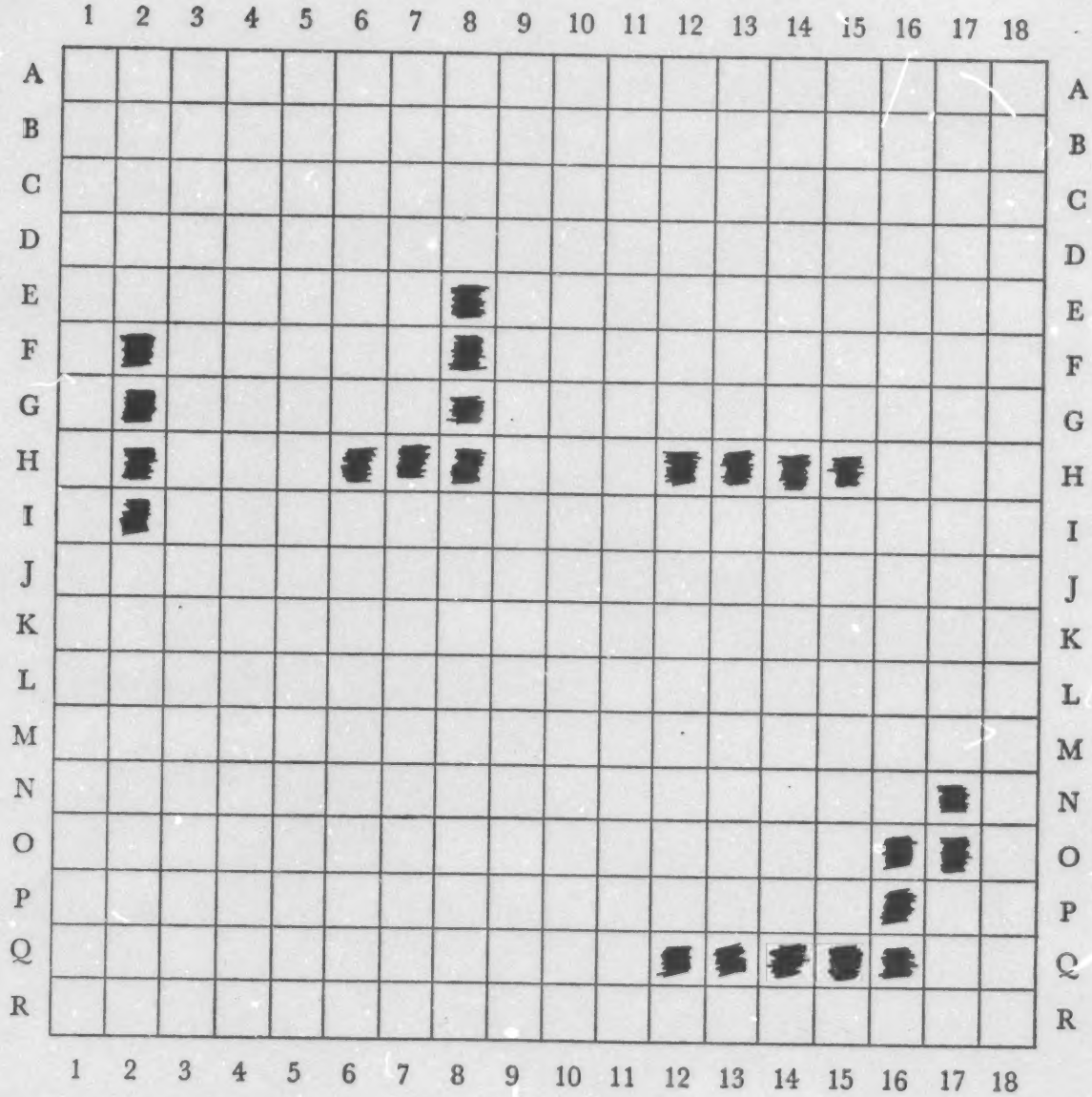

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References and Further Readings:

For additional information on decision-making, see Jay Hall, "Decisions, Decisions, Decisions," in *Psychology Today* (November, 1971), pp. 51-54, 86-87. An extremely useful questionnaire called the "Group Encounter Survey" is available commercially from Teleometrics Int'l, Conroe, Texas; this instrument allows individuals to measure their own decision-making style in terms of the decision-making grid.

The section on the task, method, process approach to decision-making was developed in part by William H. Bergquist and Nancy Barber from theory presentations by John L. Wallen and Fred Fosmire, who currently are incorporating this theory into a full-length study in progress.

Chapter Ten

Managing Conflict

There is much misunderstanding concerning the uses of conflict in American colleges and universities. Much of this stems from the different attitudes individuals take toward conflict, attitudes which are connected with deep differences in feelings, values, and goals. For some conflict implies aggression, violence, destruction, the loss of control, the irrational, and even death. For others conflict may imply adventure, change, growth, creation, excitement, and drama.

Nearly every person displays, at one time or another, these various attitudes toward conflict, for each of us has both positive and negative feelings about different kinds of conflict. Indeed, mixed attitudes toward conflict are justified. It can and often does bring disorder, destruction, and death. But conflict also can bring opportunity, development, and growth both to individuals and to societies. It may not be too much to suggest, in fact, that most individual growth and social progress involves the creative resolution of conflict. Thus, to deny, suppress, or eliminate conflict, even if this could be done, would be to deny, suppress, or eliminate a major source of growth and progress.

A. Four Kinds of Conflict

In order for conflict to be managed effectively so that it produces growth rather than destruction, it may be useful to consider some of the various types of conflict that can occur. Four are most common:

1. Conflict over Differing Goals

The needs and goals of one group may be quite different from those of another group. Resolution of this type of conflict is difficult but most frequently comes through compromise, negotiation, bargaining, brokering, or, in extreme cases, the separation of the two groups. Resolution can also be brought about by developing new goals on which both groups agree or common ways to reach the differing goals. Both types of resolution, but particularly the last, offers the potential of creative growth for both groups.

2. Conflict over Differing Means to a Common Goal

Two groups may wish to achieve the same ends in different ways. In many instances, the attention of the two groups is focused on the specific proposals being made to achieve the common goal. In these instances, each group often invests an increasing amount of ego in their proposals, which results in irrational consideration by both groups of the other's ideas. This type of conflict is often resolved if the two groups set aside for a time their specific proposals to consider together the information they have about their current condition. If this information is inadequate, more, obviously, should be sought. If, after a reasonably complete collection of information, the conflict continues, then the two groups probably do not in fact agree about goals or are not confronting other issues that divide them. An outside mediator or consultant may be needed if this is the case.

3. Conflict over Scarce Goods

In this type of conflict, struggles develop over the division of commonly prized but scarce goods, whether they be money, things, power, prestige, or status. By enlarging the supply of

goods we may be able to resolve this type of conflict. In the past, growth has been a common solution for many conflicts in American life. If goods have been scarce, we have not tried so much to redistribute them as to increase the total number available. Today, however, we no longer can afford or expect continued growth and hence must look elsewhere for solutions to these problems. One way of doing this is to change the image of the goods from something to be possessed to something to be shared. This type of conflict resolution can enable individuals or groups to mature through cooperation. In many cases, however, this type of conflict can become continuing and destructive.

4. Conflict Caused by a Threat to Identity

If conflict continues after ways of reaching common goals have been identified or after scarce goods have either been made plentiful or shared, then the conflict may stem from a threat to the identity of one or more of the persons or groups involved. Such conflict is marked by deep hostility and resentment; resolution is impossible until these feelings are brought into the open and the situation is objectively understood by both individuals or groups.

Resolution of the first three types of conflict involves two requirements. First, trust must be present among the parties in conflict, and, second, all parties must be capable of locating the sources of the conflict. When conflicts are not faced or recognized, and when communication about the nature of the conflict does not take place, then the groups develop unrealistic pictures of each other and of the situation. When trust and rationality remain excluded from the situation, the fourth type of conflict may be present. In this situation, communication seems impossible and any shared sense of reality permanently lost. The destructive components of this situation must be reduced and some trust restored before any type of resolution is possible.

B. The STP Approach to Conflict-Management

One particularly useful approach to the resolution of conflict has been developed by Frederick R. Fosmire and John L. Wallen. Interpersonal and organizational conflicts can be managed, they believe, through careful attention to the *situational* variables that impinge on the conflict, to the various *targets* that are offered to improve the situation, and to the specific *proposals* that develop to change the situation from its current to some more desirable state. The relationship between situation, target, and proposal are presented graphically in the following table.

SITUATION	TARGET	PROPOSAL
Starting point	Termination	Path from situation to target
Facts, opinions, explanations about the current conditions, predictions about efforts to change.	Goals, aims, ends, values, purposes, objectives.	Means, plan, strategy, implementation, procedure.
Environment	Outcome	Action

The situational aspect of conflict concerns information about both the essential features of the situation and the forces that may help or hinder the movement toward an improved state. In many instances, two people or groups will disagree about the nature of the current situation and hence will not be able to generate adequate proposals to move them toward a more desired state. The role of the conflict-manager under these conditions is to help the individuals or groups determine what additional information they need, how to find this information, and once the information is collected, how to draw appropriate inferences from it for use in further planning.

The target aspect of conflict concerns definitions or conceptions of the desired state. Assuming the presence of adequate situational data, conflicts over target can be resolved through compromise. Since the bases of target conflicts are often the values and arbitrary preferences of the conflicting parties, the intensity of the conflict will be a function of the intensity with which these values and preferences are held. Because values and preferences are difficult to change, the primary role of the conflict-manager here is to help the groups combine targets, explore the intensity of their beliefs, and find acceptable methods for choosing between alternative targets.

Finally, the proposal dimension of conflict is concerned with specific actions that are offered to change the present state into the desired state. Proposals should be judged on the basis of their compatibility with the situational information and identified targets, as well as on the basis of the costs, risks, and benefits associated with each specific proposal. The manager of conflict at this point should encourage both logical analysis and imaginative exploration in the development of proposals, as well as systematic reasoning in the selection of one or more "best" proposals.

Conflict over differing goals is clearly focused on target issues, while conflict over differing means to a common goal is usually situational, though it may initially be seen as one over proposals. Conflict over scarce goods seems to be a mixture of both target and situational problems, for its solution involves both fuller awareness of the situation—that there is an inadequate supply of a certain good—and a reconsideration of possible targets—that issues of ownership may have to change or in some way be compromised. Conflicts over threats to identity may involve situation, target, or proposal issues, or all three. In these instances, the conflict management process must be in a sense internalized, since the threat lies in the interpersonal rather than external aspects of the conflict. If situation, target, and proposals issues can be carefully explored, perhaps with the help of a third party to lessen the threat involved, then the conflict may be on the way to becoming solved.

An STP approach to conflict is a particularly appropriate one for academic departments. In departmental decision-making, situational variables may include accurate assessment of student needs, departmental strengths and weaknesses, and available supporting resources. Target considerations may include a clarification of departmental goals, of personal values and attitudes, and of desired behavioral outcomes for students. Members of the department involved in proposals arising from adequate situational and target considerations will tend to feel more ownership for these proposals and, perhaps, work more actively for their implementation. The material which accompanies this chapter will hopefully be useful to those faculty members and administrators who wish to become more fully acquainted both with the nature of interpersonal and organizational conflict and with various ways of managing it.

HANDOUT NUMBER SEVEN

TITLE: Alternate Strategies for the Resolution of Conflict

SOURCE: A modification and expansion by Hattie Bishop and William H. Bergquist of one section of a paper entitled "The Significance of Human Conflict" in the reading book of the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This handout presents a listing of several strategies that are often used for denying and/or eliminating conflict and discusses several strategies that can be used for facing and creatively resolving conflicts. Though certainly not comprehensive or detailed, this list can serve as a useful starting point for an analysis of conflict in a specific relationship or organization, or for a more general discussion of conflict.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This handout can be distributed either following a brief theory session on the management of conflict or in lieu of such a discussion. A vigorous discussion will usually ensue if the participants are asked to identify specific instances when they have observed each type of strategy, or if they are asked to determine which they are most likely to use by focusing in particular on the first list. If this handout can be coupled with a conflict-producing exercise (like Exercise Number Nine) in which actual conflict-resolution techniques can be observed, it is considerably more effective.

ALTERNATE STRATEGIES FOR THE RESOLUTION OF CONFLICTS

I. Denial of Conflict

Conflict can be dealt with in a number of ways. It may be confronted or avoided, resolved through the use of force or sought out as a source of creativity. One type of strategy for the resolution of conflict relies primarily on denial and/or elimination of the conflict. Following is a list of strategies that generally fall into this category:

A. *Segregation* of conflicting elements in a situation. Segregation seldom works because of actual interdependence. For example, if John and Oscar are in disagreement about a departmental goal, merely shifting John and Oscar to different departments would only avoid, not resolve, conflict. John and Oscar could have used the conflict situation to decide upon a goal using the knowledge and skills of both men.

B. *Externalization of the conflict*. The conflict is blamed on evil "they's" somewhere *out there*. John and Oscar may say, "They can't decide on a goal, we tried." The conflict is actually *within* John and Oscar as well as between John and Oscar. Externalization denies reality.

C. *Virtuous submission* to established power relations. With this strategy, Oscar always agrees verbally with the boss's ideas even when Oscar's ideas are better. "If the boss didn't know best, he wouldn't be boss." Reality is falsified.

D. *Myth of essential alikeness*. This myth denies the individuality of a person and a group to eliminate conflict. But even if essential alikeness is accepted, conflicts which grow out of similar needs and values in the presence of scarce goods would not be eliminated.

E. *Legalistic punishment* of aggressive acts without consideration of the situation in which aggression and counter-aggression occur. Attempts to resolve the conflict are made by trying to answer the question, "Who started it?" rather than "What are the facts in the situation?"

II. Confrontation

Another type of strategy for the resolution of conflict results in the direct confrontation and creative resolution of conflict. Following is a listing of strategies that fall into this category:

A. *Facing and accepting the complexity of motivations* of both parties in the conflict situation. To oversimplify a complex situation is to falsify it and permit further distortion of reality.

B *Humanizing* both parties in the conflict situation. Humanization involves more than a fair assessment of faults and virtues. It involves acceptance of the dignity and potentiality for growth and learning of both parties.

C. *Internalization* of the conflict. Objectivity toward a conflict situation can be achieved only if both opponents can accept *their own* claims upon the situation. The conflict must be felt as well as observed.

D. *Ability to envision future values* in the changed situation. Conflicts generated in the present cannot be resolved without altering both the situation and the people involved. Rejuggling the situation can lead only to make-do resolutions. Creative resolutions require change.

E. *Acceptance of conflict* as a necessary and valuable part of human life: this is better than resorting to strategies of evasion or denial.

F. *Building and maintaining trust* and the ideal of potential growth. Accept the premise of continued creation of new values through conflicts jointly faced and resolved.

The goal for conflict utilization might be the acceptance and enhancement of differences among persons and groups. This might be accompanied by enlarged respect for and appreciation of the values and differences and a commitment to use conflicts for creative personal growth and group progress.

EXERCISE NUMBER EIGHT

TITLE: George and Harry: An Exercise in Conflict Management

SOURCE: Developed by William H. Bergquist

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This exercise consists of a short, fictional dialogue between two faculty members which quickly degenerates into an argument. The conflict between the two men involves disagreements, in Fosmire and Wallen's terms, over situation, target, and proposal. Although somewhat oversimplified, this small example of academic conflict can be used effectively to introduce Fosmire and Wallen's approach to conflict resolution.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The discussion leader begins the session with a short lecture on the situational, target, and proposal aspects of conflict. The dialogue titled "The Interdisciplinary Course" is distributed to the participants, who are asked to take several minutes to identify which aspects of the conflict concern situation, which target, and which proposal. The participants can either then share their separate analyses in small groups or can be brought back into the large group where the leader involves them in listing on three separate blackboards or sheets of newsprint the various dimensions of the conflict.

THE INTERDISCIPLINARY COURSE

THE SCENE: The office of Harry Chambers, a faculty member at an eastern college.

THE CHARACTERS: George Winthrop (a 29-year-old assistant professor in the Psychology Department); Harry Chambers (a 48-year-old full professor in the Department of Political Science).

1) GEORGE: Well, Harry, I'm glad we finally had a few minutes together to discuss our interdisciplinary course for next semester. You must be a busy man—I never seem to be able to get hold of you.

2) HARRY: You're not very easy to contact either. Your secretary never seems to know where you are.

3) GEORGE: Yeah, I guess I should keep her better informed, but I get involved in so many projects, I never seem to find time to talk with her. Well, let's see about the course. I would like us to do a lot with field experiences—you know, getting the students out into the community—they could observe and study some of the psychological dimensions of politics in the community.

4) HARRY: That would be great if we had time to supervise their work. But I don't see how we can.

5) GEORGE: But we've got to break out of the old ruts—we've got to provide the students with more experiences out in the field.

6) HARRY: Now, George, I think you are being unrealistic. You always make commitments that you can't keep, and that just leads to frustrations on the part of your students. They just don't know when they can count on you. I think we should run a course in which our students write one or two term papers that integrate political and psychological principles. This would give them an excellent opportunity to learn more about research methods, as well as. . . .

7) GEORGE: Wait a minute, Harry. I don't want us to spend a whole term asking our students to bury their heads in the books. I think we should. . . .

8) HARRY: Ask the students to wander around the streets, trying to figure out what to study?

9) GEORGE: No. I think we should ask them to take some initiative in selecting their own learning objectives, not just sit around waiting for us to tell them what to do. That's going back to the mentality of the Middle Ages!

10) HARRY: That's really unfair, George! I wasn't talking about who makes the assignment of projects. I was saying that we don't have time to supervise field experiences, nor do I think. . . .

11) GEORGE: But how are the students to learn anything if we are always hanging around telling them what to do?

12) HARRY: We don't have to spy on them. But we do have to evaluate their performances, and help them. . . .

13) GEORGE: Why! Why can't the students grade themselves? Why do we always have to be the supreme arbiters?

14) HARRY: Because we have more knowledge about the subject matter we are teaching than the students do.

15) GEORGE: I'm not so sure of that!

16) HARRY: Well, if you're not so sure, why are you teaching?

17) GEORGE: I got into teaching so I could change the kind of outmoded educational philosophy that I have just been listening to!

18) HARRY: Well, if you feel that way, maybe we shouldn't be teaching together.

19) GEORGE: Maybe you're right. I've got to think about it. I'll let you know.

(EXIT)

EXERCISE NUMBER NINE

TITLE: The Prisoners' Dilemma: An Exercise in Cooperation and Competition.

SOURCE: This exercise was first developed and used by Frederick R. Fosmire, University of Oregon, and later expanded by William H. Bergquist.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This exercise demonstrates the role which reward systems play in creating and sustaining cooperation and competition. The name "Prisoners' Dilemma" refers to a classic example in which a reward structure places both members in the difficult position of having to make decisions based on communication and trust (see the first page of this exercise for a description of this dilemma). In game theory this situation represents a "non-zero-sum" game, one in which any benefits gained by one player *need not* (but may) result in loss to the other player(s). A "zero-sum" game, in contrast, is one in which any benefit gained by one player *necessarily* results in a comparable loss to the other player(s). A zero-sum condition encourages competitive behavior, while a non-zero-sum condition can produce either cooperation or competition, depending on the amount of trust and communication that is present.

To clarify these concepts, let us examine an example from higher education of zero- and non-zero-sum conditions. If a college decides to grant only a certain number of promotions or tenured positions, and if the number of faculty seeking promotions or tenured positions exceeds the number available, then under normal conditions a zero-sum condition is present, for the success of one faculty member in obtaining promotion or tenure will mean that another faculty member will not be successful. Such a condition, obviously, can produce stress and potential conflict among both faculty and decision makers. A non-zero-sum condition is created when the number of promotions or tenured positions available is not limited; promotion and tenure are given instead on the basis of merit, irrespective of the number of faculty members involved.

The "Prisoners' Dilemma" exercise demonstrates several important aspects of non-zero-sum conditions, including the ways in which an organization develops trust or mistrust, the effects of communication (or lack of communication) on trust, the nature of cooperation and competition, the effects of the success or failure of competing organizations on the way in which one's own organization operates, and the tension that develops between individual and group goals.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This exercise can be done with as few as four people and as many as fifty-six, perhaps even more. The room in which the exercise is to take place should contain considerable open space and enough portable furniture so that separate groups can be formed and situated near each other. A large blackboard, newsprint chart, or overhead projector is also needed to record scores.

The following steps are to be used in conducting this exercise (the first two are optional):

1. Briefly discuss the nature of conflict, cooperation and competition, and/or zero- and non-zero-sum games.
2. Distribute and discuss the "Prisoners' Dilemma" handout.
3. Divide the total group into two or more small groups, preferably into at least three

or four groups. It is *essential* that all of the sub-groups be of the same size and of two to seven members.

4. Identify the primary objectives of the exercise:
   a. each player must try to accumulate more points than any other person in the total group;
   b. each small group must try to accumulate more points than any other group; and
   c. both of these goals are of *equal* importance.
5. Present the rules:
   a. Indicate that points are acquired by each participant sticking out either a hand or a fist in front of him at a given signal. The number of points received are determined each time by not only individual decisions about putting out a hand or a fist, but also by the decisions of the other members of the sub-group.
   b. Distribute copies of the pay-off matrix and score sheets to each participant; identify the proper matrix for this group (if, for example, you have divided the group into sub-groups of five, you would use the five-handed matrix). Demonstrate how the matrix works. If you were using the five-handed matrix, you might point out that if each member of the group puts out a hand, then each will receive thirteen points and the group will receive sixty-five points (13 x 5); if four members put out a hand and one member puts out a fist, then the person putting out the fist will receive eighteen points and the members putting out the hands would receive nine points; the group would receive fifty-four points ([9 x 4] + [18 x 1]), and so forth.
   c. Indicate to the groups that there will be an undetermined number of rounds, that there will be *absolutely* no talking in between rounds, and that immediately before each round all members are to close their eyes and await your signal of "one, two, three, go!" before putting out a hand or a fist. Once all the hands or fists are out, the members will be instructed to open their eyes and record their own score, the score of the group, and perhaps even the scores of the other groups.
   d. After the scores have been individually tallied in each group, publicly record them.
6. Ask for questions from the participants. They will often ask if non-verbal communication is allowed—it is not—and how many rounds there will be—don't tell! Repeat that there will be no talking allowed.
7. Begin the exercise. After the first round you may wish to review the scoring by looking at one or two of the sub-groups as examples. At the end of every round, record where all can see both the scores of each sub-group and the high individual scores. Eight to ten rounds of play should produce more than enough material for discussion.
8. Examine what has occurred in the exercise, focusing on how the structure of the matrix influenced the behavior of the groups. Look for the following phenomena, which frequently occur:
   a. One member of a sub-group puts out a fist on the first round, while the others put out hands. Though the group is initially angry, they soon begin to support the one member and equate his personal success (his high individual score) with the success of the sub-group. In this case, internal conflict has been displaced toward an external enemy, the other groups.

b. Once two or more members of a group put out fists, the trust level of the group drops, members try for individual gains by putting out fists, and all of their scores go down. Eventually, "face-saving" or retribution may take over.

c. Some groups will immediately embrace a cooperative strategy. Everyone will put out a hand on every round. While the morale in these groups is usually high at the end of the exercise (especially if they have been the only cooperative group), some members, if they feel safe in being honest, may indicate that they became bored or felt subtle pressure to conform, which they did not like.

The post-exercise discussion is essential not only for the identification and analysis of useful learnings or insights that may have occurred, but also to defuse any negative feelings that may have developed. Be sure to allow time for both types of "debriefing" to occur.

Variations:

When we conduct this exercise we usually introduce one or more variations which help to make the exercise more exciting and which also introduce other aspects of conflict. These variations should probably not be introduced until you feel comfortable in conducting the basic exercise.

1. Verbal communication within the sub-groups is allowed after the second or third round. A three- to five-minute planning period for each group before one or more of the rounds can allow them to develop strategies, reinforce group norms, and increase the level of group trust.
2. Double the points in one or more rounds. This helps increase the momentum of the exercise and, if the groups react strongly to the arbitrary way this point increase can be announced, may force the groups to develop more complex strategies and thus increase the basis for trust.
3. After the fifth or sixth round, give each group five minutes to select one of their members to be transferred to the group on their left. Although this individual is to take his own individual score to the new group, he becomes a member of that group and his future scores will be determined by the hands and fists of his new group. Once the members have been transferred, the next round may be started at once or the groups may be given a few minutes to incorporate their new member.

   This variation introduces several new areas of conflict: decision-making (Who is dispensable? Who is best qualified to serve in this new role?); trust (How do we know or how can we insure that the person we send to the new group will act as we decide? How do we feel about accepting a new member into our own group?); and status (How do you feel entering a group that has been more successful—or less successful—than the one you came from? How do you feel about admitting a new member from a more or less successful group?).
4. After the eighth or ninth round, take the four or five individuals with the highest scores and form a "hero group." The exercise may then continue with just this one group to determine the individual winner, thus producing a pure zero-sum game, or the "hero-group" may be given complete control of the exercise. As in a well-known simulation called "Starpower," from which this strategy is taken, the new group may change the rules in any way it wishes, continue the exercise, or even end it. This variation often introduces genuine conflict between the powerful and powerless groups and members.

THE PRISONERS' DILEMMA

Two men suspected of a crime have been taken into custody and separated. The district attorney is confident that the two together have committed the crime, but he does not have evidence that is adequate to convict them. He points out to each prisoner alone that each has two alternatives: to confess to the crime the police are sure they have committed or not to confess. If they both do not confess the district attorney states that he will book them on some minor charge such as illegal possession of weapons and each will get one year in the penitentiary. If both confess they will be prosecuted but the district attorney will recommend less than the most severe sentence; both will get eight years in the penitentiary. However, if one confesses and the other does not then the one who confesses will receive lenient treatment for turning state's evidence while the other will get the maximum penalty. The lenient treatment might mean six months in jail and the maximum might be twenty years.

What must be the state of mind of each prisoner? Will not each elect "Not confess" so that both can get off with just one year? But does A feel that he can trust B to choose "Not confess"? Suppose that A does so and B doublecrosses him and confesses. And B will be tempted to do just that since if he succeeds he will get off with just six months and A will get twenty years. Probably A will reluctantly decide that he dare not take the risk of getting twenty years, he must confess and hope that B will not confess. At worst A will get eight years. Probably B will decide the same and both will get eight years.

		Prisoner B	
		Confess	Not Confess
Prisoner A	Confess	A – 8 yr. B – 8 yr.	A – 6 mon. B – 20 yr.
	Not Confess	A – 20 yr. B – 6 mon.	A – 1 yr. B – 1 yr.

THE PRISONERS' DILEMMA
PAYOFF MATRIXES

Two-Handed
H = Hand F = Fist

Ratios	2H		1H/1F		2F	
Choice	H	F	H	F	H	F
Payoff to each player	8	—	2	10	—	1
Payoff to group	16		12		2	

Three-Handed
H = Hand F = Fist

Ratios	3H		2H/1F		1H/2F		3F	
Choice	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F
Payoff to each player	10	—	4	13	2	5	—	1
Payoff to group	30		21		12		3	

Four-Handed
H = Hand F = Fist

Ratios	4H		3H/1F		2H/2F		1H/3F		4F	
Choice	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F
Payoff to each player	11	—	6	16	4	8	2	4	—	1
Payoff to group	44		34		24		14		4	

Five-Handed
H = Hand F = Fist

Ratios	5H		4H/1F		3H/2F		2H/3F		1H/4F		5F	
Choice	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F
Payoff to each player	13	—	9	18	6	13	4	8	2	4	—	1
Payoff to group	65		54		44		32		18		5	

Six-Handed
H = Hand F = Fist

Ratios	6H		5H/1F		4H/2F		3H/3F		2H/4F		1H/5F		6F	
Choice	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F
Payoff to each player	7	—	5	11	4	7	3	5	2	3	1	2	—	1
Payoff to group	42		36		30		24		16		11		6	

Seven-Handed
H = Hand F = Fist

Ratios	7H		6H/1F		5H/2F		4H/3F		3H/4F		2H/5F		1H/6F		7F	
Choice	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F
Payoff to each player	17	—	13	26	11	17	8	13	6	10	4	7	2	4	—	1
Payoff to group	119		104		89		71		58		43		26		7	

THE PRISONERS' DILEMMA
SCORE SHEET

Member	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Group Payoff	Highest Individual Score—All Groups	Highest Group Score
Round 1										
Round 2										
Round 3										
Round 4										
Round 5										
Round 6										
Round 7										
Round 8										
Round 9										
Round 10										

References and Further Readings:

The concept of four different kinds of conflict was taken in part from a paper entitled "The Significance of Human Conflict" in the reading book of the National Training Laboratory Institute for Applied Behavioral Science and in part from a report written by Hattie Bishop and William H. Bergquist for the Department of Special Services, the State of Idaho. The approach to conflict resolution suggested by Frederick R. Fosmire and John L. Wallen is here published for the first time. A different approach to conflict management, one which is based on the same theory as the decision-making grid discussed in the preceding chapter, is to be found in the "Conflict Management Survey" distributed commercially by Teleometrics Int'l, Conroe, Texas.

The classic study of conflict-management is by Robert R. Blake, Jane S. Mouton, and Richard L. Sloma, "The Union-Management Intergroup Laboratory: Strategy for Resolving Intergroup Conflict," *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, I (1965), 25-57. Numerous other articles on conflict-management can be found in this journal and in the *Journal of Conflict Resolution*.

Chapter Eleven

Personal Development: An Overview

An effective faculty development program often causes a faculty member to reexamine his own life goals and values. He may also try to improve his interpersonal skills and his ability to be creative and risk-taking in his design and execution of course programs. Such changes in personal style inevitably have a profound effect on other aspects of the faculty member's life. In designing a faculty development program, one must be fully aware of the possible effects of a successful program which, by definition, changes people. All too frequently, we compartmentalize our images of change and neglect the fact that when we change the professional performance of an individual we have usually touched his family life, his relationship with his colleagues and students, and perhaps even his life goals.

A successful program of faculty development may temporarily produce feelings of isolation for the faculty member who finds himself in the midst of change. This isolation can be very difficult to cope with, especially if one of the primary forces previously preventing that instructor from experimenting with new ideas was his fear of rejection. On the other hand, the professor who has suddenly found teaching to be personally gratifying and has found his relationships with students to be more satisfying may find that such changes are viewed with mixed feelings by his own family, who previously held a much larger proportion of the professor's attention and interest.

The personal development aspect of faculty development makes three basic assumptions. First, one must be prepared for events which superficially may indicate that the program has been at best unsuccessful or at worst destructive. Faculty members who have participated in a faculty development program may experience emotional problems which reflect the difficult steps usually associated with significant personal growth. Such "problems" point to the second assumption, namely that a faculty development program must provide personal assistance to the individual who is struggling with personal issues. On a preventive level, informal discussion sessions led by trained counselors should be provided. Preferably, the program should offer life planning laboratories, in which faculty members can deal constructively with personal issues in a safe and supportive environment. Given the unfortunate fact that some instructional styles are elaborate defensive structures covering a variety of emotional problems, it is also necessary that corrective, supportive, or therapeutic services be available to individuals participating in a faculty development program.

A professional should be consulted concerning both the level of stress in personal development workshops and procedures for dealing with any serious personal problems that might develop. Furthermore, the training staff should be knowledgeable about clinical referrals, since participants who have gained trust in the faculty development staff may wish to ask for this kind of assistance. A third assumption, however, must also be made: a faculty development program is not a therapeutic enterprise. To clarify the distinction of the program from psychotherapy, each participant should indicate, when first becoming involved with the program, that he fully recognizes that it is neither psychotherapy nor a substitute for psychotherapy.

Three different types of personal development activities are specifically reflected in these three assumptions. They are life planning experiences, personal growth workshops, and support-

ive and therapeutic counseling. Each of these three components of faculty development is extremely valuable but also rather controversial. Of the three, life planning is usually least controversial and least threatening, though even this component is rejected by many faculty as being either irrelevant to instructional improvement or an inappropriate invasion of their private lives. A handbook such as we have compiled cannot really do justice to the more subtle aspects of personal development; the type of workshop experiences which produce significant personal change can not be easily described, nor should faculty development consultants attempt to conduct personal development workshops without specific training in these areas. In the context of this handbook we can only point to some of the central issues and valuable resources associated with these personal development components.

A. Life Planning

This procedure can be a very effective means of assisting the faculty member's critical reflection on the personal aspects of his own professional life. A life planning workshop is designed on the assumption that many life decisions are based on inadequate information. Life planning enlarges this base by identifying relevant personal feelings, attitudes, values, and experiences, and uses them as part of the decision-making process. This approach has been used extensively with students through student life and counseling centers.

The faculty member who participates in a life planning workshop may be asked to reflect on a number of questions concerning both his past (for example, "Describe a peak experience in your life") and his future (for example, "Briefly describe a typical day in your life ten years from today"). The life planning workshop also focuses on the participant's assessment of his current resources and liabilities and provides opportunities for him to explore and express some interrelationships between the feelings, attitudes, and fantasies that he experiences. A final step in most life planning workshops is the development of a specific project related to newly acquired perspectives.

B. Personal Growth

Several specific personal growth workshop models are particularly valuable for college teachers. The personal growth workshops conducted through NTL by John and Joyce Weir offer a personal growth model of "self-management" which would seem to be very appropriate for instructors or advisors who wish to loosen their control on (or by) other people. The NTL "Centering" workshops also offer the potential of increasing an individual's command of personal, creative resources. Similarly, some Gestalt workshops, if chosen with care, can be useful personal growth experiences for the college teacher.

With proper training, members of a faculty development staff could specifically design a personal growth workshop that focuses on issues related to instruction. These workshops must, of course, be conducted under a strict code of ethics and with adequate clinical consultation. Furthermore, this segment of a faculty development program must be considered "advanced"; it should be opened only to faculty who have participated in other aspects of the program and have exhibited emotional stability and an absence of serious personal problems. Personal growth workshops should never be considered a substitute for psychotherapy.

C. Supportive and Therapeutic Counseling

A faculty development program should make counseling and therapeutic resources available to faculty members who have found, through the program, that they have significant emo-

tional problems which are preventing them not only from being effective teachers but also from leading fulfilling lives. In many instances the counseling component will precede the other components for those individuals who have experienced some serious personal problems. The faculty member who has benefited from supportive or therapeutic counseling may wish to make use of the other resources of the faculty development program subsequent to this treatment. With personalized and professional attention, most faculty should ultimately be able to benefit from all aspects of a faculty development program.

Though the three personal development components of faculty development that have just been briefly described are all threatening and often misunderstood by faculty, two other personal development components tend to be readily accepted by most faculty who are concerned with faculty development. These two are discussions about teaching and training in helping skills. A chapter has been written about each of these components. Hopefully, the reader will be able to incorporate these suggestions into a faculty development program at an early stage, for they are not only valuable in their own right, but also provide an essential bridge to the three other personal development components that are just as important but much more frequently ignored.

Chapter Twelve

Discussions on Teaching

Socrates has written that "The life which is unexamined is not worth living." Indeed, our professional lives are all too frequently unexamined and, by implication, unlived. Like most people, many faculty members have not directly confronted some of the basic assumptions, values, and attitudes that underlie their work. "Why am I a teacher?" "How did I become a teacher?" "What is it I want my teaching to accomplish?" To answer such questions, an effective faculty development program must provide time and settings for faculty members to grapple with these and related issues. If faculty can be assisted in the clarification of their values, attitudes, philosophies, and assumptions about teaching, then they may have begun moving toward more fulfilling professional and even personal lives.

Some faculty members are quite reticent about discussing their own attitudes toward teaching. Several reasons seem to lie behind this stance. First, faculty tend to view themselves as members of a particular discipline rather than as members of either the teaching profession or an educational community; second, the tradition of academic freedom and classroom autonomy provides no context in which professors can comfortably discuss teaching; third, most faculty have received little if any formal training as teachers and, hence, often feel uncomfortable about articulating their own philosophy of education or their own rationale for teaching in a specific way; fourth, there is usually no program of seminars or case studies for the "inservice" education of professors as teachers; fifth, the time most faculty members spend with each other in committees and department meetings is seldom directed to issues of teaching and learning; and, finally, though in many other professions teamwork is the rule rather than the exception, there is little genuine understanding or support for team-teaching in higher education.

There are several different ways to meet these problems and to create conditions in which discussions about teaching can be productive and sustainable. The following methods, which have been successfully used in various faculty development programs, might be considered: (1) in-depth, formal interviews may be conducted in which faculty are asked a series of probing questions about their teaching; (2) short, informal interviews may be conducted in which the particular strengths of the faculty member are explored as a means of identifying the instructional resources of the campus; (3) formal small group discussion sessions may be organized in which attention is given, by means of a provocative discussion topic or specific exercise, to various teaching issues; (4) informal, small group discussions may be encouraged by setting up in the faculty lounge an area stocked with several interesting handouts, articles, or books on teaching; (5) formal seminars on various issues related to college teaching may be held during lunch periods, late afternoons, and so forth; and (6) formal "fellowships" or "on-campus sabbaticals" may be established in which, on a rotating or competitive basis, a small number of faculty members are released for one term from at least one course in order to organize and conduct seminars, draft position papers, conduct research projects, and plan and implement change programs in areas that relate to college teaching.

The exercises which are described in this chapter all can help bring about in-depth discussions of teaching. Whichever approach is used, the final goal is the same—a fuller, more conscious, and more clearly articulated understanding for each faculty member of the attitudes, assumptions, values, and philosophies that structure his professional life.

INSTRUMENT NUMBER THIRTEEN

TITLE: The Faculty Interview

SOURCE: Nevitt Sanford, The Wright Institute

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Extensive faculty interviews were first used in a study of values and attitudes of college teachers. Like most effective action research projects, however, the interview procedure proved to be of value not only to the researchers but also to those faculty who were interviewed. When asked to examine and clarify their values and attitudes concerning teaching, college professors found the task to be both enjoyable and beneficial. Given the self-definition of most faculty as members of specific disciplinary groups, the information that is produced by directing questions to them concerning their teaching and not their discipline can be insightful to both the professor and the interviewer. An interview is usually not a threat to most faculty members and can thus become an effective introduction to a faculty development program.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: Faculty interviews are usually conducted by a trained faculty member, graduate student, or even, in certain circumstances, an undergraduate. The interview may last from one to three hours, and questions range from "How did you decide to become a teacher?" to "If you were not a teacher, what do you think you would like to be?"

Nevitt Sanford, in "Academic Culture and the Teacher's Development," *Soundings* (1971), suggests some guidelines for an effective interview:

> In the conduct of the interviews the professor's confidence in the interviewer is most important. This rests most fundamentally on the latter's actual interest and compassion. . . . Apart from these considerations, the interviewer who comes to the professor from outside the latter's department or school has certain distinct advantages: he is not a competitor, nor an authority; unlike the professor's colleagues and professional associates this interviewer is in no position, nor has he the inclination, to hold what the professor says against him. Moreover, the interviewer is there to talk about subjects in which the professor has deep interest but which he never has a chance to talk about, except possibly when he is at home with his spouse. (367-368)

The skills needed to conduct a successful interview center on communication, and the effective interviewer will have received training in probing, summarizing, and paraphrasing (see Handouts Number Eight and Nine). Above all, the interviewer must be willing to help. Although in some sense an interview is a structured conversation, it is one in which the faculty member is doing most of the talking; the job of the interviewer is primarily to help the person he is interviewing clarify, expand, and more clearly understand the implications of his attitudes, values, and assumptions about teaching.

Variations:

1. The questions contained in a standard interview schedule can be introduced in a small group setting. Members of the group are asked to reflect on each question for several minutes, and then discuss their answers with other members of the group. While this procedure does not allow for in-depth investigation of any one member's

answers, each participant can compare his own responses with those of the other members, thereby providing a social reality against which to clarify values and attitudes.

2. Entire departments can be interviewed not only about their teaching but also about their perceptions of their own department. This information can be summarized and given back to the departments in a general meeting; this procedure often stimulates department-wide changes in teaching and administration and can aid in the process of team-building (see Chapter Eight).

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THE FACULTY INTERVIEW*

1. Where did you do your undergraduate work?
2. Where did you do your graduate work?
3. What was your dissertation [thesis] on?
4. What department are you in here?
5. How long have you been on the faculty here?
6. What courses did you teach this year?
7. Which of those courses worked the best?
8. Tell me about your goals in that course?
9. What methods did you use to reach those goals?
   a. How were the classes conducted?
   b. What did students do to show you they had learned?
10. What is your philosophy of education?
11. How does this philosophy express itself in the way you teach?
12. How did you decide to become a teacher?
13. What do you enjoy most about teaching?
14. What are the less attractive aspects of your teaching career?
15. How effective do you think you are as a teacher?
16. Can you remember a time when you departed from your usual method of teaching to try something different?
17. What did you learn from that experiment?
18. How did you learn to teach as well as you do?
19. How do today's college students differ from the persons you went to college with?
20. What pattern of relationships with students do you try to maintain?
21. What pattern of relationships with colleagues do you try to maintain?
22. Who is the most successful teacher here?
23. Why is this person so successful?
24. If you were not a teacher, what do you think you would like to be?
25. Would you like to tell me anything else about yourself as a teacher?

*This interview schedule was developed for the College Center of the Finger Lakes by Dr. John F. Noonan, Virginia Commonwealth University. Most of these and many other questions can be found in "Personal Development and Professional Practice in College and University Professors," a Ph.D. dissertation presented to the Graduate Theological Union, Berkeley, by J. Wesley Brown and Robert C. Shukraft in June, 1971.

EXERCISE NUMBER TEN

TITLE: Questions

SOURCE: Steven R. Phillips and William H. Bergquist

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: One of the simplest ways of generating clarifying discussions about teaching is to ask questions. This exercise provides a number of questions that have proven useful in stimulating valuable discussions.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: A number of questions about various aspects of faculty life are presented below. The leader should select those he feels would be most useful for the group he is working with. The questions may be presented one at a time for the participants to discuss in small groups or pairs or presented together so that each participant has time to reflect on each before discussing his responses with the others.

In addition to a number of the interview questions in Instrument Number Thirteen, the following questions are suggested:

1. How did you become a teacher?
2. Who was most influential in your deciding to become a teacher?
3. Have any of the teachers which you had as a student strongly influenced the way in which you now teach, evaluate students, relate to students, and so forth?
4. What would you most like to hear about your teaching from your students? From your colleagues?
5. What is the one criticism that you are most fearful of receiving from a student? From a colleague?
6. Imagine that you were just informed that one-half of the students enrolled in one of your courses are going to die at the end of the semester. You do not know which students will die. Would you change the way you are now teaching the course? How? Why?
7. If you were to leave teaching, what would you do?
8. If you were to teach another subject than your own, what might it be?
9. What do you like most about teaching? Least?
10. In thinking back to a recent class session that was particularly successful, what were the ingredients that made it this way? How would you cause this experience to happen again?
11. What is the best thing that could happen to you in a class? Worst?
12. How do you feel about the idea of having some of your colleagues visit your classes?
13. If you were given the task of training twenty new college teachers in your discipline, what do you think are the five most important things they should *know* about teaching to be effective teachers? What are the five most important things they should be able to *do* as effective teachers?
14. How valuable do you feel grades are?
15. What kind of activities take place in your classes? Why?

16. Do you think that you will be teaching five years from now? If you are going to be teaching, will any important changes have taken place in your attitudes toward teaching, or in the way you teach? What might these be? What are your reactions to there possible changes?
17. What is the one thing that you most want your students to learn?
18. If this were your last semester of teaching, would you do anything different? What?
19. Does any other teacher that you now work with have a significant influence on the way you teach? What is the nature of that influence? Why does this influence occur?
20. Are there one or two members of the faculty at your institution with whom you are likely to discuss your successes in the classroom? Your failures? Why these people?
21. What is the one thing you would most like to change about your teaching?
22. What is your greatest strength as a teacher? Weakness?
23. To what extent do you think that you can have a significant influence on your students? What is the nature of this influence? To what extent do you design your courses to minimize or maximize this influence? Are you happy with the amount of influence you now have?
24. What is the most important thing about teaching for you?
25. When students reflect back after ten years on courses that they have taken from you, what would you most like them to remember about you as a teacher?
26. What has been your most significant accomplishment as a teacher over the past three years? Your greatest failure? What, if anything, have you learned from these experiences?
27. What is the most important thing a student can learn from you?

EXERCISE NUMBER ELEVEN

TITLE: Myself as Teacher

SOURCE: Unknown; this particular version was developed by Gerry Perkus, Hartwick College, and William H. Bergquist

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Self-analysis and self-disclosure can be important sources of personal growth. In "Myself as Teacher" participants are given the opportunity to describe themselves as teachers, first to themselves and then to each other.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The only materials needed for this exercise are a supply of scrap paper and some pencils and pens.

The participants are asked to list on separate pieces of paper ten words or phrases that describe themselves as teachers. Once that listing is completed, the ten pieces of paper are arranged in order of their importance to the participant, who then shares his image of himself with others in small groups.

Variations:

1. Other roles can be substituted for "Teacher"; participants may be asked to describe themselves as "Learners," "Colleagues," "Members of a Department," "Members of an Institution," and so forth.
2. After the original ranking, participants may be required to discard two of their terms, substitute two new terms, and then rerank.
3. Participants may be requested to discard as many of their ten terms as possible and to keep only those that are genuinely of value to them. They may then discuss with each other the reasons for their choices.

EXERCISE NUMBER TWELVE

TITLE: Values Testing

SOURCE: Developed by Steven R. Phillips and based on the values theory outlined in Louis E. Raths, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney B. Simon, *Values and Teaching: Working with Values in the Classroom* (Columbus: Merrill, 1966), pp. 28-29.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Many attitudes, feelings, and assumptions we hold pass for values when they actually are not, while others are genuinely valued and provide meaningful structures for our lives. This exercise gives participants the opportunity to list a number of these assumptions and then to examine them in the light of a formal system of values theory.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: Copies of "Values Testing" are distributed to all participants, who are asked to work through the exercise on their own. Ample time, perhaps as much as an hour, should be allowed for this. When all the participants have completed the exercise, they may be asked to share their insights with each other in small groups.

Variations:

1. Other value areas ("Myself as a Learner," "Myself as a Colleague," "Myself as a Person") may be used.
2. The values to be examined could be generated by the use of Exercise Number Eleven, "Myself as Teacher."

VALUES TESTING

Introduction:

We all value certain things about teaching but often have not given those values careful thought. Perhaps one of the reasons for this is that values themselves are very difficult to define. For the purposes of this exercise we will define "values" as those beliefs, ideas, or assumptions around which we build our lives. This exercise is designed to allow each of us first to articulate some of the values we hold about teaching and, second, to examine those values in a systematic manner.

Directions:

First, list below ten things that you value about yourself as a teacher. These may range from such things as "My discipline" to "Helping students grow."

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Next, let us look at some of the things that characterize genuine values. In their book on *Values and Teaching*, Louis Raths, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney Simon suggest that valuing something is a continuous process characterized by the following seven criteria:

1. *A value is chosen freely.* Values are the result of free choice; if there is force involved in the choice, the value is probably not strongly held.
2. *A value is chosen from among alternatives.* The process of valuing is in part a process of selecting from among a number of possible values. The fewer the alternatives and the less those alternatives have been considered, the less valued something is likely to be.
3. *A value is chosen after careful consideration of the consequences of the various alternatives.* A value is not chosen carelessly or on the spur of the moment but only after considerable reflection and consideration.

4. *A value is prized and cherished.* A value is something that we are proud of and happy with; it is something that we like to do. Thus an unpleasant duty, something that we would prefer not to do, is not a value.
5. *A value is publicly affirmed.* We are not ashamed of our values and, when asked about them, are not afraid to state them publicly.
6. *A value is acted upon.* Values effect our lives in visible ways and can be observed in our behavior. A value is not just something that is talked about.
7. *A value is repeating.* If something is genuinely valued, it tends to reappear in different occasions and contexts. A single action does not make a value. Values persist, forming part of the pattern of our lives.

Now, go back over your list of ten values and compare each of them to the seven criteria listed above. Do some of your values not meet all seven? How many? Why? In light of these seven criteria, do some of your values appear to be more strongly held than others? Which ones? Why? Are some of your values not really values at all but something else?

You may use the space below to note your thoughts on the values you have listed.

Notes on "Value Testing"

References and Further Readings:

The material on faculty interviews is based on the work of Nevitt Sanford and his colleagues at the Wright Institute and, in particular, his two articles, "What Ever Happened to Action Research?" *Journal of Social Issues*, 26 (1971), 3-23, and "Academic Culture and the Teacher's Development," *Soundings* (1971), 357-371. Sanford's faculty interview project has also been described in several chapters of Mervin Freedman, ed., *Facilitating Faculty Development* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973). For additional reading on interviewing, see Robert L. Kahn and Charles F. Cannell, *The Dynamics of Interviewing* (New York: Wiley, 1957); William H. Banaka, *Training in Depth Interviewing* (New York: Harper and Row, 1971); and Alfred Benjamin, *The Helping Interview* (2nd ed., Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1974). A rather different approach to the interviewing of faculty than the one we have taken is used and discussed in Joseph Axelrod, *The University Teacher as Artist* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973).

Numerous approaches to values clarification are outlined in Louis E. Raths, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney B. Simon, *Values and Teaching: Working with Values in the Classroom* (Columbus: Merrill, 1966) and Sidney B. Simon, Leland W. Howe, and Howard Kirschenbaum, *Values Clarification* (New York: Hart, 1972).

Chapter Thirteen

Helping Skills

Carl Rogers defines the essential nature of a helping relationship as one "in which at least one of the parties has the intent of promoting the growth, development, maturity, improved functioning, improved coping with life of the other. . . . To put it in another way, a helping relationship might be defined as one in which one of the participants intends that there should come about, in one or both parties, more appreciation, more expression of, more functional use of the latent inner resources of the individual."[1] The purpose of this chapter is to provide a number of exercises and handouts that can both improve the helping ability of those involved in faculty development and increase the helping skills of faculty members themselves in their multiple roles as teachers, advisors, and colleagues.

In considering the various aspects of a helping relationship several factors seem to be of particular importance:

Trust: It is important to be perceived by other persons as dependable, consistent, and concerned with their welfare. Trust is based on both intention and competence. It is not enough that we want to help another person; if we wish to gain the trust of someone else we must also possess the skills to be helpful. Our awareness of the ways in which we "free" or "bind" another person (Exercise Number Thirteen) is particularly important in creating conditions for the formation of trust.

Disclosure: We need to be capable of and willing to share with the person being helped our own feelings, perceptions, and concerns as they are relevant to the helping process. We must know when it is appropriate for us to be open about our own personal lives. We must avoid dominating a conversation with discussions about our own problems, yet we should be honest enough about these problems to help establish a standard of openness.

Clarity: It is necessary to avoid messages which convey confusing or contradictory information. Clarity in communication involves the acquisition of such specific skills as description of feelings and perception check (Handout Number Eight), as well as a sensitivity to the complexity of both verbal and nonverbal communication.

Empathy: We must be able to understand from the other person's point of view his feelings and possible reactions to various events and insights, but we must also maintain a sense of our own identity so that we will have the objectivity to help the other person clarify and understand the nature of his own feelings and behavior. Empathy is often helped by means of active listening and perception check.

Descriptive Feedback: We should be able to provide the person being helped with information about his own behavior that is concrete, non-evaluative, and well-timed (Handout Number Ten). Effective feedback is probably the most subtle aspect of a helping relationship. The characteristics of constructive feedback need to be both understood and constantly practiced and reviewed. Behavior description (Handout Number Eight) is a particularly important skill for effective feedback.

Understanding and Acceptance: We must be able to listen to another person and convey our acceptance—not necessarily our agreement—with what he has said. The skill of paraphrase (Handout Number Nine) is essential to this process.

To the extent that we can create "relationships which facilitate the growth of others as separate persons," states Rogers, we will have measured and reflected the growth each of us has achieved in ourselves.[2] Seen in this light, faculty development becomes an exciting and personally growthful enterprise not only for faculty but also for those involved in a helping relationship with them.

NOTES:

[1] Carl Rogers, *On Becoming a Person* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1961), pp. 39-40.

[2] Rogers, p. 56.

HANDOUT NUMBER EIGHT

TITLE: Understanding and Being Understood

SOURCE: John L. Wallen, Neotsu, Oregon

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Genuine communication is perhaps the most important and most difficult skill needed for a helping relationship. This handout describes paraphrasing and perception checks, two ways we can attempt to insure that we have understood the ideas and feelings of others, and description of behavior and of feelings, two ways we can help others understand us and our responses. Paraphrasing is discussed in more detail in Handout Number Nine.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This handout may be distributed without comment either at the beginning of or at an appropriate point during a workshop or session on communication skills. When used this way it has been found effective in providing participants with both a common vocabulary and a shared frame of reference. On the other hand, "Understanding and Being Understood" can serve as the basis of a discussion concerning ways to bring about more complete communication. Perhaps it is most effective, however, to use this handout as the basis not of a discussion but of one or more exercises centering on communication. Some possible uses are:

1. Have separate groups of participants develop role plays that demonstrate effective and ineffective use of one or more of these particular skills.
2. Have the participants and/or the leaders act out an interview using (or misusing) these skills.
3. Have participants discuss an issue in small groups with the only requirement being that before a person can speak he must demonstrate one of these four skills to the previous speaker's satisfaction.
4. Have the participants form trios with one of the three assigned the role of observer. While the other two participants carry on a discussion of a chosen topic, the observer keeps a record and then provides feedback to the other two on their use of these skills. The roles are then changed until each member of the trio has been an observer.
5. Have the participants form trios with one of the three assigned the role of judge, whose job it is to terminate the conversation of the other two when each has demonstrated the four skills to his satisfaction. The roles are then changed until each member of the trio has been a judge.
6. Have the participants form helping trios (Exercise Number Fourteen), but have the observer take special note of the consultant's use of these particular skills.

UNDERSTANDING AND BEING UNDERSTOOD

I. Paraphrase

To check your understanding of the ideas, information, or suggestions of others, state his idea in your own words or give an example that shows what you think he was talking about. A good paraphrase is usually more specific than the original statement was.

Example:

Sam: "Joe is unfit to be manager."

Paraphrase A: "You think he's not right for his job?"
(This is too general. If Sam agrees with it, you will still not know what he means by "unfit." You merely have the illusion of understanding.)

Paraphrase B: "You mean that Joe is dishonest?"
(This is more specific. Sam might answer, "No. Joe's honest but he doesn't plan and forgets details." Thus, this paraphrase leads to a clarification of the way Sam is using the word "unfit.")

You can sometimes get some clarification by asking "What do you mean?" or by saying "I don't understand." However, you get sharper clarity when you paraphrase, because you show *what your present understanding is* and thus enable the other person to address his clarification to the specific misunderstanding you have revealed.

Before you agree or disagree with a remark you should make sure that the remark you are responding to is really the message the other is sending. Paraphrase is one way of testing this.

II. Perception Check

To check your perception of the feelings of someone else, state what you perceive that person to be feeling. A good perception check conveys this message: "I want to understand your feelings. Is this [making a statement of his feelings] the way you feel about it?"

Examples:

"Am I right that you feel disappointed that nobody commented on your suggestion?"
"Did you feel pushed out of line by what Kim just said?"
"I get the impression that you are angry with me. Are you?"
"I'm not sure whether your expression means that my comment hurt your feelings, irritated you, or confused you."

Note that a perception check first identifies the other person's feelings in some way—"disappointed," "pushed out of line," and so forth—and second *does not express disapproval or approval of the feelings.* It merely conveys, "This is how I understand your feelings. Am I accurate?"

Your perception of another person's feelings often results more from what you are feeling, are afraid of, or are wishing for than from the other person's words, tone, gestures, facial expression, and so forth. Thus, if you feel guilty, you may perceive others as angry or accusing toward you. Our inferences about other people's feelings can be, and often are, inaccurate. Thus, it is important to check them out. Perception-checking responses aim to convey that you want to understand the other person *as* a person—and that means understanding his feeling—and help you avoid actions that you later regret because they were based on false assumptions of what the other was feeling.

III. Behavior Description

To help others understand what you are responding to, try to describe that behavior clearly enough and specifically enough that they know what you observed. To do this you must describe visible evidence—behavior that is open to anybody's observation. Avoid describing character traits or imputing motives or intentions to the other person and restrict yourself to stating what he did.

Examples:

"Bob, you seem to take the opposite of whatever Harry suggests today." (Not: "Bob, you are just trying to show Harry up." This is not a description but an accusation of unfavorable motives.)

"Jim, you've talked more than others on this topic. Several times you cut others off before they had finished." (Not: "Jim, you're too rude!" which describes a trait and gives no evidence. Not: "Jim always wants to hog the center of attention." This imputes an unfavorable motive or intention.)

"Sam, I had not finished my statement when you cut in." (Not: "Sam deliberately didn't let me finish." The word "deliberately" implies that Sam knowingly and intentionally cut you off. All anyone can observe is that he did cut you off.)

To develop skill in describing behavior you must sharpen your observation of what actually did occur. As you do you may find that many of your conclusions are based less on observable evidence than on your own feelings of irritation and hence are expressions of feelings and not descriptions at all.

IV. Description of Feelings

To help others understand what you are feeling, try naming or identifying them. The statement must first refer to "I," "me," or "my" and second must specify some kind of feeling by name or by a figure of speech. Because *expressing* feelings is so often confused with *describing* feelings it is important to make the difference clear. In the following examples notice that any *expression* of feeling may be based on quite different feelings as shown by the coordinated *descriptions* of feelings in the right hand column.

Expressions of Feelings	*Descriptions of Feelings*
1. Person blushes and says nothing.	"I feel embarrassed." "I feel pleased." "I feel annoyed with you."
2. Person suddenly becomes silent in the midst of a conversation.	"I feel angry!" "I'm worried about this." "I feel like I've been slapped."
3. "She's a wonderful person!"	"I enjoy her." "I respect her abilities." "I'm in love with her but I feel I shouldn't say so."
4. "You talk too much."	"I'm bored." "I want to say something." "I feel inferior at how much you know."

5. "Shut up!"	"I feel hurt by what you said and afraid to hear any more." "I feel angry at myself!" "I feel angry with you."
6. "Can't you ever be on time?"	"I'm irritated with you that I had to wait so long in the cold!!" "I've been worried for fear that you might have had an accident!"
7. "Damn you ! ! !"	"I'm furiously angry with you!" "I'm worried about you and I wish I didn't have to be!" "I like you and resent you at the same time."
8. "You shouldn't have bought me such an expensive gift!"	"I really like it!" "I feel obligated to you and resent it." "I feel inferior to you when I think of the cheap present I gave you."
9. "Jim, you are too rude and overbearing."	"Jim, I'm irritated." (Perhaps followed by behavior description: "You just cut me off.")

Note that feeling is expressed through commands ("Shut up!"), questions ("Why can't you ever be on time?"), and accusations or judgments about traits and motives ("You talk too much!" "She's a wonderful person."). In addition, feelings are expressed without words by blushing, sighing, crying, becoming silent, by keeping another waiting, and so forth. Note also that any expression of feeling may come from a number of different feelings. Thus, expressions of feelings are apt to be misread. Hence, the importance of *describing* your feelings—which is difficult but less ambiguous—if you want others to understand accurately how you feel.

HANDOUT NUMBER NINE

TITLE: Paraphrasing

SOURCE: John L. Wallen, Neotsu, Oregon

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Paraphrasing is a basic communication technique and an almost essential skill for someone entering into a helping relationship with another person. As John Wallen's discussion makes clear, paraphrasing is both a way of increasing the effectiveness of interpersonal communication and of expressing genuine interest in the other person.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: Like the previous handout, "Paraphrasing" may simply be distributed without comment, may be used as the basis of a discussion of paraphrasing, or as preparation for various communication exercises, several of which are described in the instructions for Handout Number Eight, "Understanding and Being Understood."

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PARAPHRASING

Introduction:

Tell somebody your phone number and he will usually repeat it to make sure he heard it correctly. However, if you make a complicated statement most people will express agreement or disagreement without trying to insure that they are responding to what you intended. Most people seem to assume that what they understand from a statement is what the other intended.

How do you check to make sure that you understand another person's ideas, information, or suggestions as he intended them? How do you know that his remark means the same to you as it does to him?

Of course, you can get the other person to clarify his remark by asking, "What do you mean?" or "Tell me more," or by saying, "I don't understand." However, after he has elaborated you still face the same question: "Am I understanding his idea as he intended it to be understood?" Your feeling of certainty is no evidence that you do in fact understand.

Paraphrasing:

If you state in your own way what another person's remark conveys to you, he can begin to determine whether his message is coming through as he intended. Then, if he thinks you have misunderstood, he can speak directly to the specific misunderstanding you have revealed. To paraphrase, therefore, is to *show the other person what his idea or suggestion means to you.* It is a way of revealing your understanding of his comment in order to test that understanding.

Paraphrasing has two additional benefits. First, it lets the other person know that you are interested in him; it is clear evidence that you do want to understand what he means. Second, if you can satisfy the other person that you really do understand *his* point, he will probably be more willing to attempt to understand your views.

Paraphrasing, thus, is crucial in attempting to bridge the gap that often separates people. It increases the accuracy of communication and thus the degree of mutual or shared understanding. The act of paraphrasing itself conveys feeling—your interest in the other person, your concern to see how he views things.

Learning to Paraphrase:

People sometimes think of paraphrasing as merely putting the other person's ideas in another way. They try to say the same thing with different words. Such word-swapping may merely result in the illusion of mutual understanding, as in the following sample.

Sarah: Jim should never have become a teacher.

Fred: You mean teaching isn't the right job for him?

Sarah: Exactly! Teaching is not the right job for him.

Instead of trying to reword Sarah's statement Fred might have asked himself, "What does Sarah's statement mean to me?" In that case the interchange might have sounded like this.

Sarah: Jim should never have become a teacher.

Fred: You mean he is too harsh on the children? Maybe even cruel?

Sarah: Oh, no. I meant that he has such expensive tastes that he can't ever earn enough as a teacher.

Fred: Oh, I see. You think he should have gone into a field that would have insured him a higher standard of living.

Sarah: Exactly! Teaching is not the right job for him.

Effective paraphrasing is not a trick or a verbal gimmick. It comes from an attitude, a desire to know what the other person means. And to satisfy this desire you reveal the meaning his comment had for you so that he can check whether it matches the meaning he intended to convey.

If the other person's statement was general, it may convey something *specific* to you:

Larry: I think this is a very poor textbook.
You: Poor? You mean it has too many inaccuracies?
Larry: No, the text is accurate, but the book comes apart too easily.

Possibly the other person's comment suggests an *example* to you:

Laura: This text has too many omissions; we shouldn't adopt it.
You: Do you mean, for example, that it contains nothing about the Negro's role in the development of America?
Laura: Yes, that's one example. It also lacks any discussion of the development of the arts in America.

If the speaker's comment was very specific, it may convey a *more general* idea to you:

Ralph: Do you have 25 pencils I can borrow for my class?
You: Do you just want something for them to write with? I have about 15 ball-point pens and 10 or 11 pencils.
Ralph: Great. Anything that will write will do.

Sometimes the other person's idea will suggest its *inverse* or *opposite* to you.

Stanley: I think the Teacher's Union acts so irresponsibly because the Administration has ignored them so long.
You: Do you mean that the T. U. would be less militant now if the Administration had consulted them in the past?
Stanley: Certainly. I think the T. U. is being forced to more and more desperate measures.

Some persons have difficulty learning to paraphrase because they view the task as a kind of mind-reading. They believe they are expected to say what the other person is thinking. Of course, they feel inadequate to such a task. However, the task is a simple one if you remember that you are trying to reveal what the other's comment means *to you*. Your paraphrase is not an attempt to prove that you can read the other's thoughts but to let him know what meaning *you* get from his statements. As a matter of fact, if your paraphrase turns out to be quite different from what he intended, you will often find that it elicits important additional information. Sometimes it is helpful to make a paraphrase which you anticipate will almost certainly be wide of what he intended. As the speaker gives additional clarification both of you may get a clearer conception of his point. Your wide paraphrase can help the speaker clarify his own understanding of his point.

When to Paraphrase:

Although most people paraphrase far too little, it is possible to do it too much. If you paraphrase almost everything a speaker says, he may become annoyed at your unwillingness to assume that you understand even simple, obvious points. Or he may begin to suspect that you are trying to put words in his mouth, trying to suggest what he *should* mean.

If you paraphrase continually, the other person may see it as your way of avoiding revealing your own opinions. He is the only one sharing ideas and exposing his opinions. You only

paraphrase. At first, the other may interpret your responses as indicating attentive listening, and he may respond favorably to your interest. Gradually, however, he becomes aware that while you are learning much about him he is learning nothing about you, and he begins to feel vulnerable, then distrusting and resentful of you.

Frequent paraphrasing seems especially appropriate to two general conditions. First, when mistakes might be costly, accuracy of communication becomes more important. To assume understanding rather than checking it out under such a condition is to risk grave consequences. Second, strong feelings in the sender and/or the receiver increase the probability that comments will be misunderstood. Strong feelings have the effect on human communication that static does on electronic communication; they distort or obscure parts of the message. In such cases, paraphrasing becomes crucial as a way of insuring that the message comes through as intended. The next time someone is angry with you or you are angry with him, try paraphrasing what he says until he agrees that you understand what he is trying to convey. Note what effect this has on the other person's feelings and also on your own.

HANDOUT NUMBER TEN

TITLE: Characteristics of Constructive Feedback

SOURCE: Expanded by William H. Bergquist from a list originally brainstormed by George Lehner and Al Wright in 1963.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: One of the most difficult skills needed in a helping relationship is the ability to give someone information about his behavior in a supportive, helpful, and non-threatening way. Evaluation, judgment, and criticism are often difficult to avoid but, if not avoided, may severely limit the helpfulness of the relationship. The following handout provides some guidelines for the giving of constructive, helpful feedback.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This handout is useful in any situation which requires one person to give feedback to another about his behavior. It may be incorporated into such training situations as teaching laboratories and group observations; counseling, academic advising, and even teaching can benefit from many of the points listed in "Characteristics of Constructive Feedback."

CHARACTERISTICS OF CONSTRUCTIVE FEEDBACK

1. It is *descriptive* rather than evaluative. By describing one's own reactions, it leaves the individual free to use it or not to use it as he sees fit. By avoiding evaluative language, it reduces the need for the individual to respond defensively.
2. It is *specific* rather than general. To be told that one is "dominating" will probably not be as useful as to be told that "in the conversation that just took place, you did not appear to be listening to what others were saying, and I felt forced to accept your arguments."
3. It is focused on *behavior* rather than on the person. It is important that we refer to what a person does rather than to what we think or imagine he is. Thus we might say that a person "talked more than anyone else in this meeting" rather than that he is a "loud-mouth." The former allows for the possibility of change; the latter implies a fixed personality trait.
4. It takes into account the *needs of both the receiver and giver of feedback*. Feedback can be destructive when it serves only our own needs and fails to consider the needs of the person on the receiving end. It should be given to help, not to hurt. We too often give feedback because it makes us feel better or gives us a psychological advantage.
5. It is directed toward *behavior which the receiver can do something about*. Frustration is only increased when a person is reminded of some shortcoming over which he has no control.
6. It is *solicited* rather than imposed. Feedback is most useful when the receiver himself has formulated the kind of question which those observing him can answer or when he actively seeks feedback.
7. It is *well-timed*. In general, feedback is most useful at the earliest opportunity after the given behavior (depending, of course, on the person's readiness to hear it, support available from others, and so forth). The reception and use of feedback involves many possible emotional reactions. Excellent feedback presented at an inappropriate time may do more harm than good.
8. It involves *sharing of information*, rather than giving advice. By sharing information, we leave a person free to decide for himself, in accordance with his own goals and needs. When we give advice we tell him what to do, and to some degree take away his freedom to decide for himself.
9. It involves the *amount of information the receiver can use* rather than the amount we would like to give. To overload a person with feedback is to reduce the possibility that he may be able to use what he receives effectively. When we give more than can be used, we are more often than not satisfying some need of our own rather than helping the other person.
10. It concerns *what is said and done*, or how, not why. The "why" takes us from the observable to the inferred and involves assumptions regarding motive or intent. Telling a person what his motivations or intentions are more often than not tends to alienate the person and contributes to a climate of resentment, suspicion, and distrust; it does not contribute to learning or development. It is dangerous to assume that we know why a person says or does something, or what he "really" means, or what he is "really" trying to accomplish. If we are uncertain of his motives or intent, this uncertainty itself is feedback, however, and should be revealed.
11. It is *checked to insure clear communication*. One way of doing this is to have the receiver

try to rephrase the feedback he has received to see if it corresponds to what the sender had in mind. No matter what the intent, feedback is often threatening and thus subject to considerable distortion or misinterpretation.

12. It is *checked to determine degree of agreement from others*. When feedback is given in the presence of other people, both giver and receiver have an opportunity to check with others in the group about the accuracy of the feedback. Is this one person's impression or an impression shared by others. Such "consensual validation" is of value to both sender and receiver.
13. It is followed by *attention to the consequences of the feedback*. The person who is giving feedback may greatly improve his helping skills by becoming acutely aware of the effects of his feedback. He can also be of continuing help to the recipient of the feedback.
14. It is an important step toward *authenticity*. Constructive feedback opens the way to a relationship which is built on trust, honesty, and genuine concern. Through such a relationship, we will have achieved one of the most rewarding experiences that man can achieve and will have opened a very important door to personal learning and growth.

EXERCISE NUMBER THIRTEEN

TITLE: Freeing and Binding: The Interpersonal Effect of Various Responses

SOURCE: John L. Wallen, Neotsu, Oregon

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: We influence other people through our responses to them. If those responses are open and genuinely helpful, they can have the effect of freeing the other person to become more himself, more autonomous. If, on the other hand, our responses diminish the other person's sense of autonomy by being closed and directive, we bind the other person, decrease his freedom, and limit his growth. The following exercise allows each of the participants to examine the consequences of various responses and to explore his own most commonly used freeing and binding behaviors.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The leader either gives each participant a copy of "Freeing and Binding: The Interpersonal Effect of Various Responses" and asks them to read it or delivers a short lecture based on that handout. Copies of "An Exercise on Freeing and Binding" are then distributed, and the participants work through the first section either on their own or in small groups. After each of the responses has been discussed, the participants complete section two of the exercise, which they may then share with each other in small groups.

Variations:

1. A role play of an interview may be designed to demonstrate the concept of freeing and binding responses.
2. The seventeen items in section one of the exercise could be discussed by the entire group.
3. The participants could be asked to make up their own list of freeing and binding responses.
4. The participants could be asked in small groups to give each other feedback on the freeing and binding behaviors each has demonstrated during the workshop (copies of Handout Number Ten, "Characteristics of Constructive Feedback," would be helpful here).

FREEING AND BINDING:
THE INTERPERSONAL EFFECT OF VARIOUS RESPONSES

I. Freeing Effects: increases other's autonomy as a person; increases sense of equality.

A. Increasing your understanding of the other person and conveying your understanding to him.

Active attentive listening: Responsive listening, not just silence.

Paraphrasing: Testing to insure that the message you got was the one he sent.

Perception check: Showing your desire to relate to and understand him as a person by checking out your perception of his inner state. Showing acceptance of his feelings.

Seeking information to help you understand him: Questions directly relevant to what he has said, not ones that introduce new topics.

Offering information relevant to the other's concerns: He may use it or not.

B. Helping the other to understand you as a person.

Sharing information that has influenced your feelings and viewpoints.

Directly reporting your own feelings.

Offering new alternatives: Action proposals offered as hypotheses to be tested.

II. Binding Effects: diminishes other's autonomy by increasing sense of subordination.

Changing the subject without explanation: For example, to avoid the other person's feelings.

Explaining the other person, interpreting his behavior: "You do that because your mother always. . . ." Binds him to past behavior or may be seen as an effort to get him to change.

Advice and persuasion: "What you should do is . . . !"

Vigorous agreement: Binds him to present position; limits his changing his mind.

Expectations: Binds to past: "You never did this before. What's wrong?" Or cues him to future action: "I'm sure you will. . . ." "I know you can do it."

Denying his feelings: "You don't really mean that!" "You have no reason to feel that way!" Generalizations like "everybody has problems like that."

Approval on personal grounds: Praising the other for thinking, feeling, or acting in ways that you want him to.

Disapproval on personal grounds: Blaming or censuring the other person for thinking, acting, and feeling in ways you do not want him to. Imputing unworthy motives to him.

Commands, orders: Telling the other person what to do. Includes, "Tell me what to do."

Emotional obligations: Control through arousing feelings of shame and inferiority. "How can you do this to me when I have done so much for you?"

THE EFFECT OF ANY RESPONSE DEPENDS UPON THE DEGREE OF TRUST IN THE RELATIONSHIP.

The less trust, the less freeing effect from any response. The more trust, the less binding effect from any response.

AN EXERCISE ON FREEING AND BINDING

I. Which of the following behaviors bind the other person by controlling or manipulating his behavior?

1. Listening attentively.
2. Saying, "Do you really mean that?"
3. Saying, "That's a good thought."
4. Nodding in agreement.
5. Asking, "What do you think?"
6. Saying, "Everyone has problems like that."
7. Paraphrasing what someone has just said.
8. Asking, "Do you want to comment on this?"
9. Expressing vigorous agreement.
10. Saying, "I get the feeling that. . . ."
11. Changing the subject when someone is upset.
12. Saying, "You mean you'd actually [do such and such]?"
13. Looking expectantly toward the quiet member.
14. Saying, "What you should do is. . . ."
15. Speaking at length.
16. Asking, "What should I do?"
17. Not participating in the discussion.

II. List in one column at least ten characteristic responses of your own that you consider to be freeing. In another column list at least ten responses characteristic of you that you feel are binding.

EXERCISE NUMBER FOURTEEN

TITLE: Helping Trios

SOURCE: Derived from a procedure used by William H. Bergquist and William Barber, Eastern Washington State College.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This exercise is designed to allow participants to establish genuine helping relationships through both seeking and giving help and to provide objective feedback on the nature of that relationship. "Helping Trios" creates an excellent laboratory setting for the practice of various helping skills.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The leader either distributes copies of "Helping Trios" to all participants or describes briefly the exercise for them. Trios are formed and follow the directions contained in the handout. Copies of "A Consultant Observation Form" may be distributed to the observers to assist them in their observations. At least an hour and a half should be allowed for the completion of the exercise. After the trios have finished, the entire group may be brought together to share their experiences and discuss the nature of the helping relationship.

HELPING TRIOS

Introduction:

The helping relationship is here seen as a process that can take place almost anywhere at any time when two or more people gather together—it is not limited to professional roles. No matter who you are or what your position may be, there are times when you may need to seek help or will be asked for help.

Helping another person who has a problem is not easy. For most individuals it is hard to admit our difficulties to ourselves; it is even harder to admit them to someone else. Asking for help and giving help are interrelated. The helping relationship is more easily achieved if its two-way character is recognized, understood, and accepted.

Directions:

Once the trios have been identified, each member should spend a few moments alone to select a problem on which he would like help. The following are some suggested criteria you might follow in the process of selecting a problem:

1. Choose an actual problem with which you are involved.
2. Choose a current problem, not a past success or failure.
3. Choose a fairly limited problem, since the amount of time to consider it will be relatively short.
4. Choose a problem with other people in it who are in direct relationship with you and in which your relations with them are a part of the problem.

Form the helping trios and seek a quiet and to some extent private spot to consult on the problems you have selected. Each member is assigned a role as either consultant, consultee, or observer. The process is repeated three times, which allows each to participate in all three roles. The time allowable for the entire exercise should be divided into equal thirds. The observer has the responsibility for keeping track of the time.

Roughly two-thirds to three-quarters of each time block should be used for the sharing of problems and exploring various alternative courses of action; the remaining time is for the observer to share his observations. The following guidelines may be helpful in preparing for the different roles:

CONSULTEE	CONSULTANT	OBSERVER
Shares problems	Receives problem	Keeps notes
Tells	Listens	Shares observations on what was and was not helpful
Explains, defines, organizes	Paraphrases, clarifies, summarizes	
Answers	Questions	
Shows trust	Shows acceptance	Keeps time

Suggestions for the consultant-consultee relationship:

A. What is helpful from the consultee's point of view?

1. An atmosphere of friendliness and trust.
2. Acceptance by consultant.
3. Consultant listens attentively.
4. Consultant emphasizes, rather than sympathizes.
5. Consultant paraphrases and summarizes.
6. Consultant helps clarify issues and diagnose problem.
7. Consultant helps to explore alternatives.
8. Consultant does not give advice.
9. Consultant takes a mutual approach to problem-solving.
10. A sense of progress in understanding the problem.

B. What is helpful from the consultant's point of view?

1. Client sets limits to the problem being dealt with.
2. Client recognizes the problem as his own rather than as the consultant's.
3. Client is willing to accept the limitations as well as the strengths of the consultant.
4. Client accepts feelings of the consultant as legitimate and helpful.

Suggestions for the observer:

A. What efforts were made to establish an atmosphere of trust and frankness?

B. How did the consultant go about trying to elicit relevant information?

C. How did the consultant help the consultee to see his problem differently or more clearly?

D. What did the consultee do that either added to or detracted from the success of the consultation session?

A CONSULTANT OBSERVATION FORM*

Instructions: The observer makes a tally mark in the appropriate space each time the consultant speaks. If the observer wants to remember certain remarks, he can jot down a few words in the margin as he tallies.

The consultant:

Suggests to the consultee what the problem is, what the facts are, what solutions or actions will work.	*Asks for* further clarification of the consultee's perceptions of the problem, the facts involved, the situation as it exists.
Tells the consultee what his feelings, motivations, or inadequacies are.	*Explores* with the consultee what his feelings, ideas, and motives are so that both will arrive at a clearer understanding of what is involved.
Conveys doubt that the consultee can solve the problem.	*Encourages* the consultee to use his own abilities in dealing with and solving the problem.

*This form has been adapted from one presented by Elizabeth Hunter in *Encounter in the Classroom: New Ways of Teaching* (New York: Holt, 1972), p. 197, itself a revision of material from the NTL Institute.

References and Further Readings:

A number of the handouts and exercises contained in this chapter are the work of John L. Wallen; we gratefully acknowledge his permission to allow us to use this material. The literature in the area of the "helping professions" is of course quite extensive; of particular usefulness for people involved in faculty development we can suggest, in addition to Carl Rogers' *On Becoming a Person*, Joseph Luft, *Of Human Interaction* (Palo Alto, Calif.: National Press Books, 1969); Harry Stack Sullivan, *The Psychiatric Interview* (New York: Norton, 1970); and Sidney M. Jouard, *Self-Disclosure: An Experimental Analysis of the Transparent Self* (New York: Wiley-Interscience, 1971).

Chapter Fourteen

Designing a Faculty Development Workshop

In assembling the materials for this handbook, we have tended to assume a training-oriented approach to faculty development and have as a result emphasized faculty development workshops. Workshops, however, should not be considered the only or even necessarily the most important aspect of a faculty development program. Many successful programs do not include workshops, yet have managed to generate significant change in the performance of faculty (see Chapter Fifteen for a more extended discussion of this issue). Given this qualification, however, it should be stated that any faculty development consultant who wishes to improve the professional skills of faculty will probably at some point in his career be confronted with the challenge of designing and implementing a workshop for faculty. In this chapter, we offer several suggestions about the design of such workshops. The skills for implementation, however, are very difficult to convey in writing. We can only suggest that a carefully thought-out design, previous training under an experienced consultant, and a certain amount of timely risk-taking are necessary in the implementation stage.

A. Four Types of Workshops

There are at least four types of workshops that can be incorporated into a faculty development program. They are: (1) long-term (five-day to two-week) residential workshops, (2) short-term (two- to four-day) residential workshops, (3) extended on-campus (three- to twelve-hour) workshops, and (4) brief on-campus (one- to two-hour) workshops.

1. Long-Term Residential Workshops

The long-term residential workshop gained initial recognition through its use by the National Training Laboratories (NTL) in their summer workshops at Bethel, Maine. Since the early 1950's NTL and other adult learning laboratories such as Esalen and the Center for the Study of the Person have argued persuasively that significant change will be more likely to take place if the participant is away from his usual setting and the people with whom he regularly affiliates; he is thereby forced to establish relationships in a new and different setting. A long residential workshop tends to create a "learning community," a group of people who learn from each other in a collaborative manner; such a community, it is suggested, rarely develops in shorter workshops. Furthermore, if the workshop is long enough, it is assumed that the participant can set aside old attitudes and behaviors and become familiar with and practice new skills.[1]

We agree with these specialists in adult learning; in many instances, extended workshops in a retreat setting are necessary for significant learning to occur. Since the workshop is of relatively long duration, the design is often worked out or revised during the workshop through the collaborative efforts of both training staff and participants. Workshop participants often assume major responsibility for defining the nature and timing of their own learning and provide a significant proportion of the total learning resources that are available to their fellow participants. Learning tends to be based on structured or informal experiences rather than on merely the acquisition of new information. The training staff often provides conceptual frameworks rather

than new knowledge; they often serve as models or facilitators of new skills rather than as experts or prescribers.[2]

2. Short-Term Residential Workshops

This type of workshop is more typical of the traditional adult training programs often found in such diverse areas as business, education, and sports; management training programs, continuing education workshops, and tennis clinics are all examples of this kind of training. These workshops, which tend to focus on a specific theme known to the participant in advance, are rather tightly structured by the staff. This type of workshop tends to be more information-oriented than longer residential workshops, though participants are often given an opportunity to apply this new information or try out new skills through the use of such techniques as role playing and simulations. Since the participants are already in part aware of and committed to the specific theme of the workshop, there is usually little need for collaboration on the design. Furthermore, given the short duration of the workshop, time for collaborative design and implementation is rarely available.

This type of workshop is usually residential, not for the sake of building a learning community, but for workshop participants to accomplish a great deal in a short period of time with minimal distractions. For this reason, the short-term residential workshop is often held in a setting that is comfortable but also convenient, like a motel or convention center. Residency, *per se*, is usually not important; thus participants who work or live near the workshop location can commute to it.

3. Extended On-Campus Workshops

The extended on-campus workshop typifies most traditional faculty development programs. A three-hour workshop, for example, is held on a Saturday morning. Typically, it may be advertised as a "seminar on alternate teaching methods." The workshop consists of a panel presentation by three faculty who are noted as being innovative. The panel discussion is followed by a question and answer session and a brief open discussion during which the seminar participants are asked to describe briefly any new methods they have used in the classroom during the past year.

The extended on-campus workshop is a valuable low-cost component of many successful faculty development programs. Faculty can usually attend these workshops without having to miss classes, be separated from their families, or pay transportation, room, or board costs. These workshops should be specifically focused. They are long enough, however, for some initial survey of the learning goals of the participants and for some on-the-spot changes in workshop design that are responsive to these identified goals. Since this type of workshop is held on campus, participants may often be asked to prepare specific materials and exercises, or they may be asked to bring with them brief descriptions of their work, ideas, and so forth, for an information-sharing session. This type of workshop is often lengthy enough for some participants to try out new skills or explore a new concept by means of some short, structured experiences.

4. Brief On-Campus Workshop

The fourth workshop type is in many ways a replication of the traditional college class period, though it might be used in a quite different way. Brief, highly focused sessions can be conducted during regular class periods, lunches, or in the evenings. These sessions might focus on such themes as: "How to construct a multiple-choice test," "What should we do about the

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quiet student in the classroom?" or "Referrals to the counseling center: when and how." These workshops are usually designed to maximize information-sharing through the use of short lectures, question-and-answer sessions, and discussion groups.

Several techniques can be used during this type of workshop to increase the interaction between participants or to provide at least one participant with an intensive, personal experience. David Whitcomb of California State University in Long Beach, for instance, divides the total amount of time that is available to a group by the number of participants; this yields a specific amount of time to be allocated to each member of the group. A list of participants is quickly constructed. Then each participant has the allocated amount of time to use the group as he wishes; for example, he may give a brief description of a course he is teaching and get responses from other participants, he may ask for suggestions on a problem he has encountered, or he may comment on another participant's program. Each participant can choose to give his allocated time to another participant or to defer his time until other participants have made their presentations. This simple technique can generate an amazing amount of information and helpful suggestions, as well as goodwill among the participants. An alternate approach is to focus on a specific participant, assuming that everyone will benefit from observing and/or helping with the services that are being provided to this single person. The teaching laboratory described in Chapter Five exemplifies this approach.

Several important differences can be noted in the way in which these four types of workshops are usually of benefit to faculty. The first is particularly valuable for a faculty development program that focuses not only on the professional skills of faculty but also on those attitudes, values, and assumptions that influence their professional behavior. Short-term, on-campus workshops rarely touch upon the affective life of the faculty member, nor do they develop the interpersonal camaraderie among participants which sustains introspection even after the workshop has concluded. Conversely, short-term workshops do not require the sacrifice of time and money that is required of the longer, residential workshops. If the faculty training program consists exclusively of long-term residential workshops, the participating faculty, or their families, students, colleagues, or deans are eventually going to complain about these sacrifices. Furthermore, long-term workshops can lead to a "groupy" mentality: the participants find interpersonal gratification primarily through intensive workshop experiences. They do not attempt to translate these experiences into changes in their everyday life style, attitudes, or interpersonal relationships.

Workshops of the second type should be included in any training-oriented faculty development program, for they provide in-depth exposure to specific methods and issues that is essential to meaningful change. It is important, however, that this type of workshop not be mistaken for the first type. The deep, probing, intra-personal and inter-personal experience of a long-term workshop can be duplicated in a shorter workshop only by the most skilled practitioners. Even if apparently significant effects are produced in only a short period, however, lasting changes are rarely achieved.

Short-term residential workshops, more than any others, require follow-up, for they often produce unrealistic expectations among participants concerning the intensity and breadth of change that has taken place. Without some follow-up activities to sustain and reinforce these changes, participants will often lose enthusiasm, recognize limitations of newly acquired skills, or discover that new learnings are not directly applicable to their current situation—all of which can lead to disillusionment or even hostility toward the program.

Follow-up activities may include more workshops, individual consultations with faculty development specialists, or the creation of a participant "support" group through ongoing semi-

nars, luncheon groups, networks, and so forth. If the latter type of follow-up is planned, the support group should not also serve in a program planning or governmental function. When these various functions are combined, support functions tend to get lost. The group does not spend time discussing teaching, providing assistance or encouragement to each other, or experimenting with new methods but instead gets wrapped up in many nonsupportive activities, such as conflicts over program goals or struggles for program leadership. The governance or planning services should be provided by a separate group which may have overlapping membership with the support group but is identified as a separate entity.

Extended on-campus workshops are particularly useful when they follow residential workshops. They also provide training resources in specialized instructional areas, particularly those needing technical resources, like computer-assisted instruction. These workshops can serve as effective introductory experiences for faculty who are interested in, but not committed to, the concept of faculty development. Extended on-campus workshops should rarely be the basic building block of a faculty development program, though they often have been used in this way. Unless an institution which wants a training-oriented faculty development program is willing to provide sufficient resources to support *both* long- and short-term residential workshops, it will rarely be able to bring about any significant changes among its faculty.

Short, on-campus workshops possess strengths and weaknesses similar to those of longer on-campus experiences. They can be conducted without significant institutional or personal sacrifice; however, they do not, in isolation, provide an experience which will frequently sustain significant change. Both types of on-campus workshops are often very effective when run as a series. For example, eight workshops might be conducted on the theme "Alternate Methods of Classroom Instruction." These workshops might focus on such topics as: (1) Instructional Simulations, (2) Role Playing, (3) Self-Paced Instruction, (4) Learning Cells, (5) Buzz Groups, (6) Computer-Assisted Instruction, (7) New Ways to Run Discussion Groups, and (8) Independent Study in the Classroom.

B. Basic Principles of Workshop Design

There are a number of different issues concerning design that must be considered by anyone who is planning to conduct a faculty development workshop. We shall deal with only five of the most important in this brief discussion: (1) Timing, (2) Structure, (3) Stress, (4) Staff/Participant Relationships, and (5) Staff/Staff Relationships.

1. Timing

In conducting workshops, more free time must generally be provided toward the end of a workshop than at the beginning. Apparently, participants need more free time (particularly time during which they can be alone) late in the workshop in order to synthesize an increasingly large number of concepts, experiences, and skills. When learning is particularly rich, participants need more time to individualize and integrate their new learnings. Finally, more free time should be provided in long-term workshops. During workshops lasting more than five days, participants should have at least one evening free, if not an entire day. Though workshop participants may be highly motivated and may wish to gain the maximum amount from a workshop, fatigue will disrupt a long-term workshop if free time is not provided.

2. Structure

If a workshop is highly structured at its beginning, it will generally be difficult to reduce

structure at a later point. We have found that if an expectation of structure is established early in a workshop, this expectation is very hard to break. In shorter workshops this is usually not a problem because a fairly tight structure is appropriate for these situations. In longer workshops, however, the staff may wish to create a more unstructured situation that can be fully responsive to the changing needs of the participants. Yet many participants, particularly during their first workshop experience, may feel so uncomfortable and so frustrated in an unstructured situation that very little learning will take place. There are at least two ways of responding to this problem. First, a fairly clear structure for the first day or two of the workshop can be created; built into that structure from the very beginning, however, must be the clearly stated understanding that participants will assume greater responsibility for the organization of the workshop by the end of that period. Second, a "default" structure can be established. This is a workable design that is shared with the participants, but which is neither presented as the best possible design nor as one for which the staff feels a great deal of ownership. A default structure is usually well received by workshop participants, for they will see that the staff has adequately planned for the workshop, yet has also provided a vehicle whereby the workshop design can be influenced and changed.

3. Stress

Workshops should be designed to challenge participants and to provide them with the opportunity to try out new behaviors and concepts. However, a workshop should also be designed to provide a climate of support which will increase the possibility of several realistic success experiences. Learning takes place most frequently under conditions of mild or moderate stress; if no stress is available or experienced, participants will usually not experiment with new behaviors. Conversely, if the level of stress is too high, participants will tend to adopt a defensive posture and fail to experiment.

If the staff wishes to decrease the level of stress in a workshop, it should usually provide opportunities for inter-personal relationships among the participants, for these types of relationships provide very effective means of reducing tension. If the level of stress is to be increased, conditions can be created in which participants are working together in the same room but are working alone rather than in groups. In general, stress should build slowly, hitting a high point approximately two-thirds of the way through the workshop. Usually, the level of stress should then taper off. This pattern is often appropriate; a participant should neither immediately be confronted with stress, nor leave the workshop with an artificial "high."

4. Staff/Participant Relations

At the start of a workshop, a precedent should usually be established that the staff will have a certain amount of free time. During these free periods, the staff need not be available for discussion of workshop-related issues. In most instances, the staff will need this time off to recuperate, plan, reflect, and learn. The personal as well as professional needs of the staff must be formally acknowledged at the beginning of the workshop. Conversely, some time should be allocated each day when the staff is informally accessible to the participants, for the learning styles of many workshop participants necessitates this informal contact. Prior to the start of a workshop, some understanding should be developed among the trainers concerning the way in which they will relate to participants during the informal as well as formal sessions.

5. Staff/Staff Relationships

Workshops having little structure will require extensive staff time for team-building before

and during the workshop. A loosely structured workshop demands a well-functioning, flexible staff team. More interpersonal problems among staff are likely to emerge when a program is not extensively pre-planned but is instead responsive to the changing learning needs of the participants.

If an apprenticeship or training-of-trainers program is to be incorporated in a workshop, a considerable amount of time should be allocated for staff planning and debriefing. Approximately one hour per four hours of workshop activity should usually be given to this purpose. Because of differences in status, experience, and self-confidence, staff members, under these conditions, must proceed slowly in planning and must discuss each session in great detail.

The size of a staff should be kept as small as possible without sacrificing a reasonable staff/participant ratio. Larger staffs require more time for planning and debriefing. More inter-personal problems are also likely to emerge with a large staff. A workshop which involves intensive skills training and consultation should usually provide one staff member per five participants. On the other hand, a workshop in which general skills training and discussion occurs may be effectively conducted with an eight- or even twelve-to-one ratio. Theoretical material can be presented with a twenty-to-one ratio, whereas many small group exercises can be led with ratios as high as thirty- or even forty-to-one.

C. Conclusion

Hopefully, this brief review of principles will be of value to those who are designing and implementing faculty development programs. We have included with this chapter two sample workshop designs which will provide the reader with concrete illustrations of a number of these principles. We have also provided a brief handout concerning several basic assumptions about workshop learning, as well as a sample workshop evaluation form.

NOTES:

[1] For further discussion of this issue, see, for example, Leland P. Bradford, Jack R. Gibb, and Kenneth D. Benne, eds., *T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method: Innovation in Re-Education* (New York: Wiley, 1964) and Edgar Schein and Warren Bennis, *Personal and Organizational Change through Group Methods* (New York: Wiley, 1965).

[2] Warren G. Bennis, "Goals and Meta-Goals of Laboratory Training," *Human Relations Training News*, 6 (1962), 1-4.

HANDOUT NUMBER ELEVEN

TITLE: Some of Our Assumptions about Workshop Learning

SOURCE: Nancy Barber and William H. Bergquist, derived from training materials from the NTL Institute workbook.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: The nine basic assumptions contained in this brief handout govern many of the workshop designs and training biases of practitioners who view themselves as "applied behavioral scientists." Workshop participants should be aware of these biases, particularly if they are being asked at least temporarily to accept or work under the values and educational philosophies of workshop designers and trainers.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This handout is often distributed to workshop participants before the workshop begins. Most participants will quickly understand the implications of these assumptions for the workshop in which they are about to participate. These assumptions should probably be restated again at an early point in the workshop and at several other appropriate points during the training experience.

If this particular set of assumptions is not acceptable to you as a trainer, we suggest that you explicitly formulate a list of your own so your biases can be shared with participants in workshops that you might be running.

SOME OF OUR ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT WORKSHOP LEARNING

I. Feedback

Individuals do not learn from their experience. They learn from bringing out the essential patterns of purposes, motives, and behavior in a situation where they can receive clear and accurate information about the relevancy and effectiveness of their behavior. They need a feedback system which continuously operates so that they can change and correct what is inappropriate.

II. Atmosphere

An atmosphere of trust and non-defensiveness is necessary for people both to be willing to expose their behavior and purposes and to accept feedback.

III. Information

Knowledge from research, theory, and experience is needed and important to enable the individual both to understand his experiences and to generalize from them. But generally information is most effective when it follows experience and feedback.

IV. Experimentation

Unless there is opportunity to try out new patterns of thought and behavior, they never become a part of the individual. Without experimental efforts, relevant change is difficult to make.

V. Practice

Equally important is the need to practice new approaches so that the individual gains security in being different.

VI. Application

Unless learning and change can be applied to back home situations, they are not likely to be effective or lasting. Attention needs to be given to helping individuals plan application.

VII. Learning How to Learn

Because much of our academic experience has led us to believe that we learn out of listening to authorities, there is frequently need to learn how to learn from presentation-feedback-experimentation.

VIII. Enjoyment

Learning need not be a deadly serious business. While mild tension is a precondition of effective learning, relaxation and even exhilaration are often outcomes of the learning process.

IX. Presentation of Self

Until the individual has an opportunity to reveal the way he sees things and does things, he has little basis for improvement and change.

INSTRUMENT NUMBER FOURTEEN

TITLE: Workshop Evaluation Form

SOURCE: Steven R. Phillips and Tony Grasha, University of Cincinnati

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This brief, general workshop evaluation form can yield useful information on the execution of the workshop and on the performance of each staff member. If a more detailed evaluation is desired, it should be specifically designed around the activities of the workshop.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This instrument should be distributed either at the end of, or one or two weeks following, the workshop. If the evaluation is conducted at the end of the workshop, the participants are more likely to recall their reactions to specific workshop activities; furthermore, the return of all the evaluation forms can be guaranteed. A one- to two-week follow-up, however, avoids the distortion caused by the unrealistically positive (or negative) feelings often present at the end of a workshop. A one- or two-week cooling-off period is often valuable in judging the practical worth of a specific activity.

As an alternate to a formal evaluation form, the workshop staff may want to consider interviews between participants at the end of the workshop. The participants, in pairs or trios, interview each other about the strengths and weaknesses of the various aspects of the workshop. Summaries of the interviews are usually written by the interviewer and turned in anonymously to the training staff.

WORKSHOP EVALUATION FORM

I. As you review the week's activities, what THREE activities were MOST USEFUL TO YOU and WHY WERE THEY USEFUL?

1.

2.

3.

II. What three activities were LEAST USEFUL TO YOU and WHY WERE THEY LEAST USEFUL?

1.

2.

3.

III. Which of your personal learning goals did the WORKSHOP FAIL TO MEET?

IV. Which of your personal learning goals did the WORKSHOP MEET?

V. For each staff person, indicate 2 to 3 THINGS YOU APPRECIATED OR FOUND HELPFUL and 2 to 3 THINGS YOU DID NOT APPRECIATE OR FIND HELPFUL.

Staff Member's Name: _____

Staff Member's Name: _____

Staff Member's Name: _____

Staff Member's Name: _____

VI. Has the workshop CAUSED YOU TO CHANGE in any way (*e.g.*, goals, attitudes, new skills, new knowledge)? Please give SPECIFIC EXAMPLE(S):

VII. Would you want to attend another faculty development workshop? YES _____

NO _____

VIII. If you were to be involved in any follow-up workshops, what specific activities would you find useful?

IX. Would you recommend a faculty development workshop to your colleagues? YES _____

NO _____

X. How do you feel about the relative amount of staff-participant control of the workshop?

XI. Please make any additional comments you might care to about the workshop.

PLANNING DOCUMENT NUMBER ONE

TITLE: Sample Workshop Designs

SOURCE: William H. Bergquist

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: These documents have been developed to provide trainers with concrete examples of two different types of workshops. Though the specific activities of the two workshops are not fully described, both use handouts, exercises, and instruments from this handbook and hence should be fairly familiar to the reader.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: These sample designs should not be used as blueprints for all or even one workshop. They are only offered as examples of how two workshops might be designed. Each trainer must design his own workshops based on his level and areas of expertise, the learning goals and styles of the participants, and the relationship of each particular workshop to other aspects of the faculty development program of which it is a part.

SAMPLE WORKSHOP DESIGNS

WORKSHOP NUMBER ONE

DURATION: One Week

FOCUS: Instructional Development (Secondary emphasis on personal and organizational development)

Day & Time	*Activity*	*Brief Description*
FRIDAY Evening	Orientation to Workshop	Review Workshop Design Review Rationale for Workshop
	Acquaintance Exercise	Card Exchange (Exercise Number Two)
SATURDAY Morning	Discussion Session: Roles as a Teacher	Respond to question "Who Am I As A Teacher?" (Exercise Number Eleven)
	Short Theory Session: Teaching Styles	Concepts of Richard Mann, Joseph Axelrod, and others (Chapter Two)
	Discussion Session: Teaching Styles	Small group discussion on implication of ideas from theory session
	Micro-College Planning	See Handout Number Twelve
Afternoon	Micro-College	
Evening	Skill Training Session: Helping	Demonstration of Teaching Laboratory (Chapter Five); Helping Trios (Exercise Number Fourteen)
SUNDAY Morning	Discussion Session: Roles as a Learner	Participants reflect on their own learning processes in a variety of settings
	Role Play: Student Learning Styles	Exercise Number Three
	Short Theory Session: Student Learning Styles	Tony Grasha and Richard Mann (Chapter Two)
	Micro-College Planning	
Afternoon	Micro-College	
	Teaching Laboratory	
Evening	Skill Training: Problem-Solving	STP Model of Problem Analysis (Chapter Ten); Exercise Number Eight

Day & Time	*Activity*	*Brief Description*
MONDAY Morning	Discussion Session: *The Influence of the Institution on the Classroom* Micro-College Planning	Use of problem-analysis (STP) to assess nature of institutional influence. Individual assessment, plus small group discussion
Afternoon	Micro-College Teaching Laboratory	
Evening	Skill Training Session: Decision-Making	Use of Decision-Making games (Exercise Number Six and Seven), plus theory (Chapter Nine)
TUESDAY Morning	Exercise: Small Group Decision-Making and Conflict-Management Micro-College Planning	Exercise Number Five Consultation and Brief Theory Sessions (Chapter Nine and Ten)
Afternoon	Micro-College Teaching Laboratory	
Evening	Skills Training: Interpersonal Micro-College Planning	Use of Helping Exercises (Chapter Fourteen) and discussion of their relationship to the classroom
WEDNESDAY Morning	Micro-College Teaching Laboratory Micro-College Planning	
Afternoon	Micro-College Teaching Laboratory	
Evening	FREE	
THURSDAY Morning	Discussion Session: Reflecting on Planning for the Future	Use of Life Planning Exercises (Chapter Eleven) that are modified to specifically focus on teaching

Day & Time	Activity	Brief Description
Afternoon	Teaching Laboratory: Preparing for Return to Classroom	Participants provided with opportunity to try out new teaching methods
Evening	Discussion Session: Preparing for Return to Significant Other People	Reflection on personal learnings from workshop, how to convey these to spouse, children, friends, and so forth
FRIDAY Morning	Workshop Evaluation: Interviews	Participants interview each other regarding significant learnings from workshop; particularly, what did each participant learn about the way he learns, how to continue the type of development begun at this workshop
	Workshop Evaluation: Questionnaire	Evaluation form given out to participants (Instrument Number Fourteen)

WORKSHOP NUMBER TWO

Duration: Two Days

Focus: New Classroom Methods

FIRST DAY

Morning

General Orientation: Rationale and Review of Schedule (15 minutes).

Discussion: Identification of Individual Learning Goals. Participants, alone and in groups of four, identify and/or clarify their own learning goals for the workshop, based on problems they are encountering in classroom. Common problems are identified in the small group, then shared with all the participants; listing of learning goals and problems on large sheets of newsprint. (1 hour)

Presentation: Review of major alternate classroom methods that are applicable in higher education. Use of many of the handouts in Chapter Six. (45 minutes)

Discussion: Which of these methods could be used in my classroom? (a) "Would this method be relevant in my classroom?" (b) "Do I feel comfortable using this method?" (c) "If I don't, what would have to happen for me to feel comfortable?" This exercise is done alone and in foursomes. (45 minutes)

Planning: Review workshop schedule based on identified learning goals and problems, as well as discussion about use of new methods. (15 minutes)

Afternoon

Demonstrations: Three one-half hour demonstration classes are conducted by the workshop trainers, using 10-15 student volunteers. Each demonstration covers essentially the same material but uses a different method. After each half-hour presentation, a twenty-minute discussion is held concerning the use of the method. This discussion involves the teacher, the students, and the observing faculty. The methods to be demonstrated should be rather easily implemented by the participating faculty, should be relevant to their identified problems, and should not deviate significantly from the norms of the institution. Possible methods are buzz groups, brainstorming, and role playing.

Evening

Micro-College: Each faculty participant chooses from among three to four presentations one that would be particularly interesting and relevant. The presentations run concurrently. Sample topics are: (a) student journals, (b) simulations, and (c) student learning cells. The methods should be ones that cannot be easily demonstrated in a half-hour demonstration course (afternoon session). Several different methods should be presented so that the participants can select one that is particularly applicable. (2 hours)

Planning: Faculty participants are told about the teaching labs that are scheduled for the second day and are asked to prepare a short presentation using one of the new methods (team-teaching can be used).

SECOND DAY

Morning

Teaching Laboratories: One faculty participant conducts a short class session using one or more new methods; other faculty serve as students; the session is video taped; the trainer and one or two faculty participants serve as observers. Feedback is given after each presentation, including reactions from the faculty who are serving as students and as observers. Each presenter can also see his video taped replay of the course at a later date (preferably with a trainer or another faculty participant in attendance). One teaching lab should be set up per six faculty participants. Three faculty per lab can make presentations in the morning session.

Afternoon

Teaching Laboratory: Continuation from morning session; two to three more presentations per lab are made. It is not essential that all participants make presentations; much can be learned through observation.

Evening

Review and Planning: "What did I learn at this workshop that I can use in my classroom?" "How will I use it?" "How can other faculty at this workshop be of help to me when I try new methods?" These issues are worked on alone and in small groups.

Evaluation: Questionnaire and general discussion.

HANDOUT NUMBER TWELVE

TITLE: Sample Micro-College Topics

SOURCE: The College Center of the Finger Lakes

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: A "micro-college" usually consists of two to four simultaneous one-hour sessions; participants select the one that is most interesting to them. The topics covered may be decided by either the staff or the participants, or both. Often this is a good point in a workshop to use the skills of many of the participants by having them run sessions themselves. Two to three hours of the micro-college are often scheduled for a morning or afternoon and can thus produce a remarkable range of choices. Particularly popular or effective sessions can be rescheduled for later periods.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: "Sample Micro-College Topics" may be distributed at the beginning of a workshop to give participants an idea of the process or, if enough planning time is available, a staff may generate a specific micro-college "catalogue" of topics it is prepared to offer. Whichever course is chosen, participants should be involved as soon as possible in designing and offering their own sessions.

SAMPLE MICRO-COLLEGE TOPICS

I. Teaching Styles–Learning Styles

A. Basic Model
A conceptual model for discussing teaching and learning based on Chapter Two.

B. Faculty Teaching Styles
Identification of six different teaching styles and an examination of their relationship to the basic model.

C. Student Learning Styles
Identification of six different learning styles and an examination of their relationship to the basic model.

D. Integration of the Basic Model into Your Classroom
Various methods of integrations will be investigated relative to your particular class.

II. Classroom Diagnosis

A. Classroom Diagnosis
Discussion of diagnosis and intervention; sample diagnostic forms; actual practice in classroom diagnosis.

B. Teaching Laboratory
Diagnosis and analysis of teaching in a laboratory setting.

C. Instruments for Classroom Diagnosis
Their design and use.

III. Simulations

A. An introduction to the theory, design, and use of educational simulations

B. The guide to simulations/games for education and training
Presentation of a model for the self-design of simulations.

IV. Decision-Making

1. Group Decision-Making
An introduction to the ways groups make (or fail to make) decisions.

2. Group Observation
An introduction to group observation; practice in observing an actual group at work.

3. The Decision-Making Grid
An introduction to the Blake and Mouton model of group decision-making.

4. Prisoners' Dilemma
An exercise contrasting individual and group goals.

V. Communication Skills

1. Basic Communication Skills
An introduction to the elements of effective communication.

2. Interview Techniques
An exercise in one-to-one interviewing.

3. Understanding Techniques
An exercise in understanding, in being understood, and in helping the process of understanding.

VI. Values Clarification

1. An Introduction to Values Clarification
   The presentation of several methods which can help students clarify their attitudes and values toward a topic of discussion.
2. Discussions of Teaching
   A method for clarification of teaching values.
3. Life and Career Planning
   Where do you want to go and how are you going to get there?

VII. Alternate Learning Methods

1. Students' Journals
   A way to integrate the intellectual and personal response—rationale, goals, format, encouraging creativity, examples, problems, evaluation.
2. Contract Grading
   How to establish contracts for grades with students.
3. Interdisciplinary Courses
   Goals, different models, planning, strengths, and problems in team teaching, kinds of student projects, difficulties in evaluation.
4. Student Living-Learning Centers
   Issues involved in trying to integrate dormitory life with academic programs, student-faculty relationships, different formats, different learning styles, the search for community, problems of isolation, structure versus non-structure, evaluation.
5. Student-Centered Classroom
   Rationale, issues of authority, goals, how to facilitate peer learning, different models, problems, evaluation, learning contracts, decision making, cooperation versus competition.
6. Self-Paced Instruction
   Introduction to the theory and design of various self-paced instructional units.
7. Fantasia
   The role of fantasy in learning.
8. Large Class Management
   Methods for design of a course in which a large number of students with diverse learning goals can be motivated and involved.

Chapter Fifteen

Designing a Faculty Development Program

"Faculty Development" is a term which encompasses a remarkably diverse set of assumptions, activities, and goals. While every faculty development program should hold increased student learning as its primary goal, there are many justifiable ways to enrich the quality of learning that can take place in higher education for both students and faculty.

A. Components of Faculty Development

In examining these various approaches, it would perhaps be useful to identify and interrelate the various components which constitute faculty development. The expository sections of this handbook have provided a discussion of some of the more important components in a training or consultation-oriented faculty development program. To summarize this list of components, we suggest the following organization:

I. Instructional Development is composed of
   - A. Evaluation
   - B. Diagnosis
   - C. Training: Traditional Methods
   - D. Training: New Methods and Technologies
   - E. Curricular Development

II. Organizational Development is composed of
   - A. Team-Building
   - B. Decision-Making
   - C. Conflict-Management
   - D. Problem-Solving
   - E. Managerial Development

III. Personal Development is composed of
   - A. Discussions about Teaching
   - B. Career and Life Planning
   - C. Interpersonal Skills Training
   - D. Personal Growth
   - E. Therapeutic and Supportive Counseling

While each of these components can play a potentially major role in creating a successful faculty development program, the sequence in which they are presented may be even more important. Some of these components should be introduced before others, either because one develops logically out of another or because some are less threatening or more easily implemented than others. Early success can build a basis of credibility for the program that will allow for the introduction of other components.

As an example of a developmental sequencing of components, consider the relationship between instructional diagnosis and training. Frequently, faculty development programs provide training in basic teaching skills or in the use of new instructional methods, without having first

provided the faculty member with information about his current performance. In essence, this sequence asks the instructor to make decisions about significant changes in his style or method of teaching without adequate information about his current performance in the classroom. A diagnostic component clearly should be introduced along with or before a training component. Conversely, an evaluation or diagnostic component should not be left standing alone in a faculty development program, for if the faculty member receives evaluative or descriptive feedback about his performance in the classroom, yet is provided none of the resources that are necessary to bring about change in this performance, then he quite justifiably cannot be expected to improve his teaching. Every piece of information that is generated from an evaluative or diagnostic instrument should be coupled with an available training component; otherwise, diagnosis is likely to be more punitive than beneficial.

As an example of a sequencing of components to build credibility and support, we can examine the relationship between "discussions of teaching" and "life planning." While the latter is extremely important in any faculty development program attempting to touch on the personal domain of a faculty member's life, it is often misunderstood and consequently rejected out of hand by faculty. Discussions about teaching, on the other hand, are obviously appropriate to faculty development, and hence should precede, and may lead toward, the life planning component.

The problem of sequencing is particularly important when considering the first steps in a faculty development program. In some instances, these will have already been decided. A president, for example, may decide that faculty should receive training in the use of self-paced instruction, or that faculty should all be evaluated by students, or that incentive grants should be given to faculty who try out new methods in the classroom. The effective faculty development consultant will at this point usually not try to change such decisions unless they violate his ethical or professional standards. Rather, the consultant should work from the institution's own definition of the problem and desired outcome; he may wish, however, to expand the plan and possibly even redirect its definition, while at the same time providing services that directly confront the initially defined problem.

If the consultant is given the opportunity to define a point of entry, he should make this decision on the basis of a systematic assessment of institutional environment and goals[1] and on the basis of institutional acceptance of the services being proposed. One specific entry service (for example, faculty evaluation) may seem right for a particular institution, given its current problems and goals, and may make developmental sense, in terms of the other components of faculty development. However, if faculty find this service to be too threatening, then another entry service should be identified which is not as threatening, like discussions about teaching. This service, in turn, should be designed to lead the participants, and eventually the entire institution, toward a recognition of the importance of more far-reaching activities.

Several of the components identified in this book are particularly appropriate entry points: (1) "Discussions on Teaching," (2) evaluation (especially self and student), and (3) managerial development. The first of these entry points is particularly effective, for it is of low-threat and is directly relevant to teaching and learning. The second entry point may be rather threatening, while the third may be an effective first step only if the faculty is intimately involved with administrative issues.

B. Strategies for Faculty Development

Decisions concerning the sequencing of various faculty development components unfortunately are often made neither on the basis of an assessment of institutional environments or goals nor on the basis of a logical sequence of development. Frequently, these decisions are based on untested and even unstated assumptions about how people and institutions change. These assumptions often form an elaborate construct or "paradigm,"[2] a configuration of particular concepts, materials, methods, technologies, and modes of evaluation through which the process of change is seen. Paradigms vary from individual to individual and institution to institution. To the extent that these paradigms are untested and unarticulated, each individual and institution not only is unaware of holding a particular paradigm but also is unaware that any other paradigm might be equally valuable.

In order to increase awareness about alternate faculty development paradigms, we offer a list of eleven strategies. Each will be briefly described in terms of three issues: (1) assumptions about change, (2) assumptions about teaching and learning, and (3) assumptions about the theory, concepts, or tools of faculty development. Four program designs based on several of these strategies are offered as supplementary documents to this chapter. A forthcoming book by Jerry Gaff, to be published by Jossey-Bass, will describe in some detail the activities of numerous instructional improvement centers throughout this country (see Appendix A) and will hopefully provide a much more sophisticated categorization and description of these various faculty development strategies.

1. Strategy Number One: Training

Faculty development programs that exemplify this strategy tend to be based on the assumption that change occurs primarily by giving people new skills that can be used not only in the performance of specific tasks like teaching but also in the accomplishment of change itself. It is assumed that reward or punishment systems *per se* will not change people; rather individuals must be provided with new skills, attitudes, and behaviors that are appropriate to the desired change. Faculty development practitioners who embrace a training paradigm usually assume that faculty will be more effective teachers if they are provided with new skills in conducting traditional courses and in using new methods or technologies which reflect new attitudes about teaching and learning.

The training paradigm emphasizes the use of both short- and long-term workshops, as well as classroom diagnosis. Personal and instructional development both tend to be emphasized in this paradigm. Organizational development is only partially employed; faculty are trained in the use of such organizational skills as decision-making and conflict-management, but there is usually only indirect concern for organization-wide diagnosis, feedback, or intervention.

Several sequences of faculty development components have been frequently used with some success in training-oriented programs. One sequence, which is more fully described in Planning Document Number Four, involves, first, one or more basic week-long instructional development workshops, usually held during the summer. These workshops focus on teaching methods, training and teaching skills, exploration of assumptions, values, and philosophies associated with teaching, and training in decision-making and problem-solving. Once a certain number of faculty (usually at least ten percent) are involved in the training program, it can begin to expand beyond the workshop level. Faculty may be offered classroom diagnostic services. Contacts may be established between faculty who want to explore certain areas and faculty who have ex-

pertise in that area. Departments and divisions may be trained in the use of specific organizational skills.

An alternate sequence begins with short-term, on-campus seminars that focus on specific methods or technologies. Usually a rather large number of faculty will participate in these seminars over a two- or three-year period, though these seminars in and of themselves will rarely have a significant impact. Once the credibility of the program is established through these seminars, other types of services may be offered, including more extended workshops, peer assistance programs in which one faculty member works with another in a specific area, and classroom diagnosis. This more cautious sequencing of components is appropriate in a college or university that is not particularly supportive of faculty development or the improvement of teaching from a nondisciplinary perspective.

2. Strategy Number Two: Consultation

The consultation-oriented approach to faculty development, on the surface, seems to be similar to the training strategy. However, there are distinct and important differences between the two. The consultation paradigm does not begin with an assumption that training is always an important aspect of change. As a matter of fact, at least one consultative model begins by rejecting the basic assumption concerning the desirability of change itself.[3]

A person using a consultation approach to faculty development will not begin with any well developed preconception about what the problems are in the teaching and learning process. He will usually make extensive use of information collection, analysis, and feedback after having taken the most critical and often controversial step in the consultative process, the identification of the client: is the client the faculty, the president, the trustees, or the students?

The client, once identified, will define the goals of the program. Given the necessary responsiveness of a consultant to his client, no one sequence of components can be defined as being "typical" of this strategy. Only in the case of the entry point is there a common pattern among consultants. Prior to any consultative intervention, some clarification of the client's problem usually occurs, along with the establishment of a preliminary contract in which the obligation and expectations of both client and consultant are spelled out in some detail. Many consultative processes are basically a recycling between information collection and clarification and contracting between the client and consultant. The primary goal of the consultant in this process is to generate valid and useful information for the client, while increasing his options for action. Needless to say, this type of dispassionate, almost detached, process can rarely be achieved by an individual who works within the organization to be served. At an early stage, external consultants can usually do a more effective job than consultants who are based within an organization.

3. Strategy Number Three: Personal and Organizational Development

Personal and organizational development strategies are grouped together because they both emerge from the single paradigm of applied behavioral science. Beginning with the work of Kurt Lewin in the 1930's and early 1940's[4] a steadily accumulating set of theories, models, and techniques have developed around the basic assumption that the process as well as the substance of change must be planned and managed if change is to be successful and productive. Both the personal and organizational aspects of change are emphasized, with attention being given to such issues as (1) sense of ownership for the change process, (2) development of collaborative rather than competitive relationships in the solution of personal and organizational problems, (3) recognition of the personal as well as organizational benefits and costs of a specific policy, and (4)

creation of an organizational climate that is characterized by trust, openness, and interdependence.[3] Many of the exercises, handouts, and instruments offered in this handbook reflect this paradigm.

The personal and organizational development strategies differ somewhat from the training or consulting strategy in that their orientation is not primarily toward instruction. Herein lies both the strength and weakness of both the personal and organizational strategy for higher education. In the recognition of personal and organizational dynamics that are common to all human systems, the applied behavioral scientist is able to translate important learnings gained in one setting to a seemingly quite different institutional setting. These practitioners, however, often ignore some of the essential differences between the systems which they serve, and at times neglect the essential problem with which they were initially confronted by the client system. A faculty development consultant, for instance, who indiscriminately uses sensitivity training, team-building, process observation, or life planning will often find that his client grows impatient in waiting for him to directly respond to an entry problem that is likely to be concerned with better teaching.

4. Strategy Number Four: Method-Promotion

The fourth strategy to be considered also initially resembles the training strategy. Method-promotion, however, differs from the training strategy in that the primary focus is on a specific method of instruction or a particular educational technology. This strategy has been widely used in recent years for the promotion of criterion-referenced instruction, self-paced instruction, the Keller Plan, and personalized self-instruction. These methods enable a student to master specific skills or knowledge in order to pass a course or receive a certain grade. Programs which promote the use of these instructional tools have been widely established in such diverse settings as the United States Air Force (the Community College of the Air Force) and Cleveland State University. Similarly, a dominant emphasis has been placed in some faculty development programs on the use of experience-based methods, instructional simulations, or audio-tutorial devices.

The specific methods or technologies being promoted are, of course, assumed to be at least partial answers to the teaching and learning problems encountered in colleges and universities. The sequence of implementation usually leads from an emphasis on the specific method or technology to either classroom evaluation or diagnosis. Personal and organizational development components are generally only important to the extent that they provide support for the personal and/or institutional acceptance of the instructional tool being promoted.

5. Strategy Number Five: Instructional Materials

This strategy is often hard to discriminate from the previous strategy, for in many instances new instructional materials are developed as part of the process of promoting the use of a specific method or technology. This strategy, however, can embrace a far more eclectic approach to the development of instruction and will at times much more closely resemble either the training or consulting strategy. The assumptions about change that are usually associated with this strategy center on the availability of resources: people are not more effective, or do not change their mode of operation, because they are neither provided with the necessary resources nor the expertise to generate new resources. Specifically, faculty have neither the training nor the time to develop highly sophisticated instructional materials. Change, it is assumed, will take place when these resources become available.

The new instructional resource centers that have been established at several institutions, most notably Syracuse University, either provide faculty members with prepared instructional materials or work closely with the faculty in the design of materials that are specifically tailored to the instructor's goals, knowledge, or pedagogical orientation. This type of faculty development program holds great promise for the future, especially with the increasing emphasis being placed on fiscal accountability. Though many faculty resist the idea that an instructional specialist who is not trained in their discipline may be helpful, this type of service is being used with increasing frequency in many of the instructional resource centers now in existence.

The materials-oriented faculty development program usually begins in a consultative manner, with members of the staff working with a few faculty on the identification of existing materials or on the development of new materials. As the program gains credibility, the instructional resource center staff will often offer training programs both to acquaint faculty with the diversity of pedagogical tools that are available and to improve the skills of faculty in the design of their own materials. Workshops on instructional simulations, for instance, can help faculty in designing their own simulations, as well as in selecting existing simulations that are appropriate to their own specific instructional needs. At a more advanced stage, the instructional resource consultant may work with an entire department or division on total instructional programs. At this point, the resource consultant may be moving into the much broader area of curriculum development. If the resource center staff is aware of and prepares for this expansion of services, it can gain even greater credibility and can produce even more significant change than it may have originally thought possible.

6. Strategy Number Six: Equipment

As mentioned in the introduction to this handbook, many of the major attempts in the past to improve the quality of instruction have focused on the acquisition of new instructional equipment like slide projectors, video tape equipment, and computers. Several current programs that are described as "faculty development" continue to be primarily concerned with the acquisition of such equipment. While there are numerous weaknesses inherent in this approach to change, it can be a viable strategy, particularly when used in large, research-oriented institutions, provided it is coupled with an effective training and promotion program.

The equipment paradigm in higher education clearly reflects the more general "technological" paradigm held by our society. It is assumed that many social system problems, like physical system problems, can be solved through technological innovation and dissemination. If we can send a man to the moon, so the argument goes, then we should be able to develop and distribute instructional equipment that will increase the efficiency as well as the quality of the teaching-learning process. The methods and concepts embraced by this paradigm focus on the invention, innovative use, and dissemination of technology. Many of the people who embrace this paradigm are fully aware of the personal and professional problems associated with these three phases of technological change.[9] Thus, the strategies of training, consultation, and organizational development may be effectively employed in conjunction with the equipment strategy. Without this expanded conceptualization technological dreams which many hold will never be fulfilled.

7. Strategy Number Seven: Discussion

This strategy reflects the traditions of higher education and is readily embraced by and rarely threatening to many faculty members. Practitioners who employ this strategy usually assume that faculty entering into in-depth discussions about their teaching will gain a more ma-

ture perspective on the teaching profession and a more explicitly defined educational philosophy. If the discussions are held over an extended period of time with the assistance of a trained leader, they may produce significant personal and/or professional change. The work of Nevitt Sanford and his colleagues at the Wright Institute probably best exemplifies this strategy (see Chapter Twelve). The faculty development program now being conducted at California State College in Northridge by Daniel Sedey exemplifies a variation on this strategy. A small group of faculty are selected each year to participate in a seminar on college teaching. These faculty members are given release time to attend as well as prepare position papers, research projects, and so forth for the seminar group. Through the seminar discussions, faculty explore a wide variety of issues related to college teaching. In the process of discussing these issues with their colleagues, the participating faculty clarify their own assumptions about teaching and explore alternate modes of learning.

8. Strategy Number Eight: Evaluation

As indicated in Chapter Three evaluation is an essential, though often abused, component of any goal-directed system. It often serves as an entry point for faculty development and is among the most widely used tools for the improvement of instruction. The evaluation paradigm is based on the assumption that change takes place when a faculty member is confronted with information about his performance in the classroom through diagnosis and evaluation.

A faculty evaluation program is based on the assumption that evaluation can serve a constructive and developmental purpose. Some evaluation programs, however, are implemented primarily to provide academic administrators with information to be used in making decisions about tenure, promotions, and salaries. This latter use of evaluation is frequently associated with the reward system approach to faculty development to be discussed next.

Since we have already addressed the use of evaluation and its sequencing with other components in some detail in several other chapters of this book (particularly in Chapter Three), it is enough to say at this point that evaluation should not be dismissed as an inappropriate faculty development strategy, for many colleges and universities are eager to begin at this point.

9. Strategy Number Nine: Reward System

Most practitioners in the field of faculty development would agree that support for faculty development must ultimately come through a set of policies and procedures which tangibly reward the improvement of instructional performance. If faculty are not rewarded for the improvement of their teaching skills, then a faculty development program must rely on more subtle, and often fickle, motivators like student acceptance, colleague recognition, self-esteem, or a sense of personal achievement. A college or university must embrace a policy which provides (1) an equitable, objective system of performance evaluation, (2) resources to the faculty member for the improvement of his performance, and (3) tangible rewards in terms of salary, promotion, and tenure for the improvement and/or maintenance of a high level of instructional competency.

A number of different approaches have been taken in the use of this strategy. Several state systems have given small grants to individuals who wish to experiment with new methods in the classroom. Other institutions provide release time or sabbaticals to particularly competent instructors. Still other institutions, such as Gordon College, have moved toward "growth contracts" whereby a faculty member and his academic supervisor establish explicit criteria for assessing and rewarding not only performance but also improvement.

The question is often asked: "How do we motivate faculty to improve their teaching?" One

answer to this question is a tangible reward system: If faculty are paid to teach better, then they will teach better. This answer should be and usually is followed by a statement that the institution must provide additional services to help the faculty member improve his teaching performance. Unfortunately, on some occasions this latter statement is neglected, which indicates a simple-minded and mechanistic approach to change. An alternate response can be given, however, to the question of motivating faculty: improvement in instructional abilities is itself often rewarding. Like most people, teaching faculty do not enjoy doing an inadequate job in their chosen profession. The experience of repeated failure in the classroom is usually painful and humiliating. Once faculty have acquired and begun to use new instructional methods or have improved their skills in using traditional approaches they begin to experience greater success in the classroom. This experience, in and of itself, often motivates faculty to work even harder on the improvement of their instructional skills.

10. Strategy Number Ten: Career Transitions

This strategy has been used less frequently than any of the others, yet in the near future it may be among those in greatest demand and potentially of great significance. As faculty members critically examine their roles as teachers, some will find that they are not in a profession which they highly value. During the mid-1970's the recognition of this fact may be particularly common and painful, for many faculty who view themselves primarily as researchers or scholars have found that adequate financial resources for these endeavors are no longer forthcoming. As they turn toward teaching, they find themselves in a role they do not prefer. Turning in other directions, however, they find professions which are either over-employed or inaccessible. When this dilemma is compounded by the problem of steady-state financing and faculty retrenchment, the problem of academic career transitions becomes an area of potentially major concern in the very near future.

Faculty development is an appropriate vehicle for assisting faculty members through major career transitions. Several institutions, like the Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education, have incorporated this type of activity in the initial planning of their faculty development program. In other faculty development programs, this area of concern will gradually emerge as a natural extension of efforts at improving the performance of faculty in their current jobs. Workshops can be conducted, for instance, in which faculty engage in a detailed career and life planning sequence, or in which faculty are trained in various managerial skills.

A faculty development program staff might also help a faculty member assess his current skills and compare these skills with skill profiles from other professional fields in order to identify common areas. The interpersonal, design, and research abilities of many faculty members are very appropriate to certain other professions. This diagnostic process can also be of value in helping the faculty member identify areas for further development. Exchange programs between faculty and administrators can further aid the career transition, as well as provide an institution with potential channels for re-employment of displaced faculty.

11. Strategy Number Eleven: Comprehensive Institutional Development

This final strategy hopefully reflects the future direction of faculty development programming in American higher education. Presently, faculty development is a movement with many disciples, detractors, prophets, and princes. At times it looks like a fad. It certainly is not a panacea, nor will it ever solve all of the problems facing colleges and universities today. If isolated from or even working against other vital issues confronting an institution, it will have little or

no impact. Yet if faculty development is systematically and patiently implemented as part of a comprehensive program of institutional renewal, it can have profound and lasting impact on the lives of faculty, their administrators, and their students.

A danger exists, however, in making faculty development part of a larger program of institutional growth and development: incorporation can lead to diffusion and even elimination. Just as the central function of a college or university—teaching and learning—can become lost or neglected in the press of committee meetings, professional conventions, and research contracts, so, too, can faculty development become lost in institutional goal setting or administrative team-building. Perhaps the one thing held in common by previous approaches to instructional improvement is a failure to reach faculty, particularly faculty in the arts and sciences. Even at this early stage in its growth, faculty development has shown that it can reach these individuals. Faculty development may well become part of a larger process yet, when this happens, care must be taken that it becomes an important component of that process. If this happens, faculty development will find its appropriate place as a major force for improving the quality of learning taking place in the nation's colleges and universities.

The processes of change, as they involve any person or institution, are always subtle and ill-defined. One should be amazed that any significant change ever takes place and should feel gratified if this change has in part been attributable to one's own efforts. The fact that some changes in the performance of faculty in the classroom have taken place is itself justification for a program of faculty development. However, a program that is successful will usually have a broader impact on the campus than may be initially anticipated. As the potential source of a comprehensive institutional development program, faculty development will be confronted with new challenges as well as new insights into the problems of higher education. If such is the case, then our efforts at faculty development may be of greater significance than any of us now hope or imagine.

NOTES:

[1] For a fuller discussion of this point, see an article by William H. Bergquist forthcoming in a collection from Jossey-Bass tentatively titled *Elements of Survival*.

[2] This term has been used by Thomas Kuhn in his important study *The Structure of Scientific Revolution* (2nd ed., Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970).

[3] Chris Argyris, *Intervention Theory and Method: A Behavioral Science View* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1970).

[4] Alfred J. Marrow, *Practical Theorist: The Life and Work of Kurt Lewin* (New York: Basic Books, 1969).

[5] For further discussions of this issue, see Edgar Schein and Warren Bennis, *Personal and Organizational Change through Group Methods* (New York: Wiley, 1965); Warren Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne and Robert Chin, *The Planning of Change* (New York: Holt, 1969); Warren Bennis, *Organization Development: Its Nature, Origins, and Prospects* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969); and Wendell L. French and Cecil H. Bell, Jr., *Organization Development* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973).

[6] Donald A. Schon, *Technology and Change: The New Heraclitus* (New York: Delacorte, 1969).

PLANNING DOCUMENT NUMBER TWO

TITLE: Faculty Development Outcome Questionnaire

SOURCE: William H. Bergquist

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: In planning for a faculty development program, it is essential that an assessment be made of the views held by key members of the institution about faculty development. These views do not necessarily have to dictate the direction which the program takes; however, they should be recognized or at least discussed during the planning process. The "Faculty Development Outcome Questionnaire" is one approach to assessing attitudes about faculty development. The questionnaire respondent is given twelve descriptions of potential outcomes from a faculty development program. Each of these outcomes is concerned with one or more critical areas of faculty development —areas in which there is no common agreement as to either the desirability of the outcome or the extent to which this outcome is appropriate to a faculty development program. The respondent is instructed to indicate the extent to which he thinks each outcome is desirable, appropriate, and probable on his own campus.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The instrument can be used either by itself as a means of assessing attitudes about faculty development or as a vehicle for generating discussions about faculty development among individuals who must make decisions about the program. If used in the latter way, the discussion leader should be prepared to consider such issues as:

1. Is personal development a legitimate aspect of faculty development?
2. What safeguards should be taken to avoid emotional disturbances in faculty development workshops—or are such events inherent in the process of intensive, personal introspection about attitudes and values associated with teaching or career planning?
3. Is organizational development a legitimate aspect of faculty development?
4. Should a faculty development program precipitate comprehensive curricular or even institutional change?
5. Should faculty be encouraged to use alternate methods in the classroom or to improve their skills in the use of traditional methods?
6. Should a faculty development program get into the business of developing instructional materials?

Each of these questions is potentially a topic of interest for extensive discussion. The answers to each question can help a faculty development staff direct its attention to services which will be willingly acknowledged and used by members of the institution.

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT OUTCOME QUESTIONNAIRE

Name: _____

Department or Division: _____

_____

Following is a list of potential outcomes for a faculty development program on your campus. As you read through this list, some of the outcomes will seem to be *desirable*, some will seem to be *appropriate* to a faculty development program being conducted on your campus, and some will seem to be *probable* outcomes for your campus. Other outcomes will seem to be *undesirable*, *inappropriate*, and/or *improbable*. Would you please rate each of these outcomes in terms of these three variables: desirability, appropriateness, and probability. Rate each outcome with specific reference to your campus using the following rating scales:

Desirability

1 = highly desirable
2 = moderately desirable
3 = neutral
4 = moderately undesirable
5 = highly undesirable

Appropriateness

1 = highly appropriate
2 = moderately appropriate
3 = uncertain
4 = moderately inappropriate
5 = highly inappropriate

Probability

1 = highly probable (85-100%)
2 = moderately probable (65-85%)
3 = "50/50" chance (35-65%)
4 = moderately improbable (15-35%)
5 = highly improbable (0-15%)

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1. An informal faculty planning committee is formed by participants in a faculty development program. This committee recommends a new, more flexible schedule of classes to accommodate newly learned instructional methods and technologies such as simulations and computer-assisted instruction.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

2. In examining her attitudes, values, and aspirations concerning teaching, a faculty member decides that teaching is the wrong profession for her, though she has been teaching for 10 years. She becomes an assistant director of marketing at a large department store in a neighboring city.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

3. A faculty member decides that lecturing is not an appropriate method for the college

classroom. Though he is not yet skillful at using other methods, he tries them out with slight to moderate success.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

4. A faculty member attends an intensive, week-long faculty development workshop, in which he examines his attitudes and values associated with teaching. He discovers that his relationships with both men and women at this workshop is more meaningful and satisfying than is his relationship with his wife. He returns home after the workshop, somewhat shaken. With the help of one of the workshop trainers, he and his wife receive help from a marriage counselor.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

5. Members of the faculty development planning committee, after running instructional development workshops for several years, decide to conduct a week-long workshop which has been designed to increase the participants' ability to express themselves emotionally and artistically both inside and outside the classroom.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

6. An instructional resource and design center is established to provide faculty with assistance in conducting their courses and using educational technologies (computer-assisted instruction, audio-tutorial devices, video tape systems, and so forth).

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

7. A training program is started to assist department chairmen in the areas of financial and personal management.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

8. A committee composed of individuals who have participated in the faculty development program produce a set of recommendations for significant institutional change. These recommendations result from the committee's forecast of problems and potentials for the institution in the near future.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

9. A faculty member explores his own assumptions about teaching and learning, as well as his instructional strengths and weaknesses. He decides to participate in several training programs which enable him to become a more stimulating and informative lecturer, but chooses not to participate in other workshops that focus on alternative methods.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

10. After participating in several faculty development seminars and workshops a faculty member who has been at the college for three years decides to leave the teaching profession in order to work fulltime in the field of faculty development. Since he has encountered significant resistance to his work at his home campus, he decides to accept a faculty development position at another college.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

11. In working with several faculty members from one department, a faculty development consultant decides that the primary barrier to more effective instruction for these faculty is a lack of departmental support for educational innovation. Departmental infighting seems to preoccupy the faculty with which the consultant is working. He recommends that the department work with him in the development of a new curriculum and in the resolution of long-standing conflicts. His work with the department is moderately successful: a new curriculum is developed, though many of the conflicts remain unresolved.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

12. A faculty development program is started with the assistance of state funds to improve the quality of instruction at both public and private institutions in the state. Members of the planning committee decide that we do not yet know enough about how instruction can be improved to begin a campus training or consultation program. The committee decides to sponsor a series of research projects concerned with the effectiveness of several instructional methods.

_____ Desirability Rating _____ Appropriateness Rating

_____ Probability Rating

PLANNING DOCUMENT NUMBER THREE

TITLE: Faculty Questionnaire

SOURCE: Clare Rose, Center for Professional Development, California State University and Colleges

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This questionnaire was originally designed to assess the attitudes and needs among faculty in six California State Colleges and Universities concerning faculty development. The instrument can be similarly used by other colleges and universities, for it measures a variety of important attitudes among faculty concerning their own professional development.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: This questionnaire should be distributed to all faculty members at an institution which is considering the establishment of a faculty development program. Each section of this questionnaire should be carefully examined to see if the services being suggested can actually be delivered by the proposed program in the event that it receives strong support. New items may be added and others deleted in order to make this instrument specifically responsive to the needs and resources of different institutions.

FACULTY QUESTIONNAIRE

1. The words "faculty development" can be defined in many ways. Please describe briefly what "faculty development" means to you. (Please be as specific as you can.)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. Please describe briefly what would most help you improve your teaching (aside from release time or additional resources).

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3. Please help us in designing our faculty development program by placing a check in the appropriate column indicating how valuable the following kinds of activities would be to you. In the column at the far right, place a check next to those activities in which you would be willing to participate.

	(1) Very Valuable	(2) Moderately Valuable	(3) Not Very Valuable	(4) Willing to Participate
a. Learn more about higher education generally.				
b. Have others criticize my own teaching.				
c. Share my attitudes and values about teaching with my colleagues.				
d. Learn about students' learning styles, characteristics, and needs.				
e. Improve instructional skills by experimenting with different teaching techniques.				
f. Learn about teaching in a new academic specialty within or outside my own field.				

	(1) Very Valuable	(2) Moderately Valuable	(3) Not Very Valuable	(4) Willing to Participate
g. Develop new or redesign courses.				
h. Develop personal, organizational, management, and leadership skills.				
i. Learn more about course and teacher evaluation.				
j. Learn more about student advising.				

4. a. Please indicate which of the following formats would be of value to you for faculty development workshops or seminars by placing a check in the appropriate column. If you would be willing to participate in one or more of these activities, indicate so by placing checks in the far right-hand column.

	(1) Very Valuable	(2) Moderately Valuable	(3) Not Very Valuable	(4) Willing to Participate
(1) On-campus workshops, 2 hours				
(2) On-campus workshops, half day				
(3) On-campus workshops, full day				
(4) Off-campus workshops, two days				
(5) Off-campus workshops, one week				
(6) Other, please specify				

b. How often would you like some form of workshop to be held?

_____ (1) Once a month
_____ (2) Twice a month
_____ (3) Once a week

5. a. Some faculty members, particularly those in fields facing declining enrollments, are developing new specializations. If you were given financial assistance, would you be interested in acquiring a new specialization?

	(1) Definitely No	(2) Probably No	(3) Probably Yes	(4) Definitely Yes
(1) Within your current field				
(2) In a different field				
(3) In an interdisciplinary area				

b. If yes, what specific specialty would you be interested in developing?

_____

_____

c. What is your present academic area? _____

6. a. What is the approximate class size of *each* of the formal classes you most typically teach?

	under 15	15-35	36-50	51-74	75-100	over 100
(1) Class 1						
(2) Class 2						
(3) Class 3						
(4) Class 4						

b. Which of the following teaching methods do you *primarily* use in each of these classes?

	Lecture	Group Discussion	Mixed Lecture-Discussion	Independent Study	Small Group Discussion	Other, Please Specify Below
(1) Class 1						
(2) Class 2						
(3) Class 3						
(4) Class 4						

7. Do you discuss *teaching* with your colleagues on campus?

..... a. No

..... b. Yes, with one colleague

..... c. Yes, with 2 or 3 colleagues

..... d. Yes, with several colleagues

8. The following statements represent different views held by faculty regarding teaching. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

Effective Teaching	(1) Disagree Strongly	(2) Disagree Somewhat	(3) Agree Somewhat	(4) Agree Strongly
a. There is no one style of effective teaching.				
b. Teaching is a learned set of activities, and faculty can learn to improve their effectiveness.				
c. Good teachers are born, not made.				
d. The best teacher is the person who knows the most about the subject matter.				

	(1) Disagree Strongly	(2) Disagree Somewhat	(3) Agree Somewhat	(4) Agree Strongly
e. Teaching can best be improved by providing faculty with sabbatical leaves, lighter teaching loads, and smaller classes.				
f. Involvement in scholarly research leads to far more exciting teaching.				
g. Good teaching is an art, not a science.				
h. One of the most important parts of good teaching is arousing student interest in the subject matter.				
i. Students are the best judges of how effectively their professors teach.				
j. Any instructional method is acceptable if it results in desired changes in students.				
k. The most important results of instruction cannot be measured.				
l. The effectiveness of any instructional method must be judged only in terms of its effect on student learning or satisfaction.				

9. In your opinion, what is the single most important change that could be made at your institution to improve the quality of instruction (excluding additional time or resources)?

10. The following are a number of alternative instructional methods. In column A, please check whether you have used it. In column B, indicate whether you would be interested in attending seminars or workshops to learn more about how to use or improve your use of each method.

    If there is someone at this school who you think would be particularly good at helping you and others learn about each method, write that person's name in column C. In column D, please check the areas in which you would be willing to serve as a resource person.

	(A) Have Used It	(B) Interested in Learning More	(C) Name of Resource Person	(D) Yourself
a. Lecture				
b. Group discussion				
c. Team teaching				
d. Interdisciplinary, problem, or theme teaching				
e. Use of the community as a learning laboratory				
f. Independent, tutorial, or contracted study				
g. Experiential learning, gaming, simulation				
h. Individual research or artistic project				
i. Group research or projects				
j. Use of students as teachers, tutors, or discussion leaders				
k. Self-paced instruction, Personalized System of Instruction				
l. Use of audio or visual media				
m. Other, please specify				
_____				
_____				

11. If you are willing to serve as a resource person, please identify yourself and turn in this page separately from the rest of the questionnaire so that your responses to the other items will remain anonymous.

Name _____ Department _____

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA
(Optional)

1. Age .....

2. Sex _____ a. female _____ b. male

3. Academic Rank:
   _____ a. Instructor or Lecturer
   _____ b. Assistant Professor
   _____ c. Associate Professor
   _____ d. Professor

4. Department(s): .....

5. Is your position at this institution:
   _____ a. Part-time
   _____ b. Full-time
   _____ c. Tenured
   _____ d. Non-tenured

6. If you presently hold an administrative position, please indicate whether it is as a:
   _____ a. Department chairperson
   _____ b. Above department chairperson

7. Highest degree attained:
   _____ a. Bachelor's
   _____ b. Master's
   _____ c. Doctorate or other professional degree
   _____ d. PhD in progress

8. In what year did you receive your highest degree? .....

9. Number of papers published in scholarly journals within the last three years.
   _____ a. None
   _____ b. One or two
   _____ c. Three or four
   _____ d. Five or more

10. Name (optional) .....

PLANNING DOCUMENT NUMBER FOUR

TITLE: Designs for Faculty Development

SOURCE: William H. Bergquist

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: These sample designs have been developed to provide faculty development planners with several different models of faculty development. Although the sample designs are presented in outline form only, they nevertheless make a number of suggestions about the sequencing and timing of various faculty development services and activities.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE: The designs that are briefly outlined should not be considered applicable to any specific institution but rather should be used to help create the design of a program that is specifically responsive to the needs and climate of the institution being served.

DESIGNS FOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAM NUMBER ONE:
Training Emphasis

STEP	NATURE OF ACTIVITY	COMPONENTS INVOLVED	PROBABLE MONTH OF EVENT
1.	Basic Instructional Improvement Workshop (7 days)		1 (Repeat at yearly intervals)
	a) Pre-Workshop Interviews	Discussions of Teaching	
	b) Discussion Groups	Discussions of Teaching	
	c) Micro-College	Educational Methodology Educational Technology Interpersonal Skills Training	
	d) Teaching Laboratory	Instructional Diagnosis Micro-Teaching	
	e) Creation of Campus Teams	Curriculum Development (Governance)	
2.	Intermediate Instructional Improvement Workshop (2-4 workshops: 3 days)		5-10
	a) Pre-Workshop Peer Observation of Classes	Self and Peer Evaluation	
	b) Micro-College	Educational Methodology Educational Technology Interpersonal Skills Training	
3.	Advanced Instructional Development Workshop		12-13 (Repeat)
	a) Discussion Groups	Discussion of Teaching Life Planning	
	b) Micro-College	Educational Methodology Educational Technology	
	c) Organizational and Small Group Dynamics	Decision-Making Conflict-Management Problem-Solving	

STEP	NATURE OF ACTIVITY	COMPONENTS INVOLVED	PROBABLE MONTH OF EVENT
4.	Creation of Educational Consulting Service a) Training of Consultants b) Development of Formal Services c) Public Relations	Instructional Diagnosis Micro-Teaching	16-20
5.	Expansion and Linkage of Educational Consulting Service a) Expansion of Service to Include Organizational Development b) Linkage with Campus Personal Development Services	Organizational Development Personal Development	24-36

DESIGNS FOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM NUMBER TWO:
Consulting Emphasis

STEP	NATURE OF ACTIVITY	COMPONENTS INVOLVED	PROBABLE MONTH OF EVENT
1.	Monthly Topical Seminars (2-4 hours) (*e.g.*, "Large Class Management") a) Relevance b) Publicity c) Developmental Plan	Educational Methodology Educational Technology Curriculum Development	1-36
2.	Resource Directory (Listing of On-Campus Resources, Major Low-Cost Off-Campus Resources, Bibliographies)	Educational Methodology Educational Technology	10
3.	Consultation Network (Program for Faculty to Assist Each Other)	Educational Methodology Educational Technology Institutional Diagnosis Institutional Evaluation	15
4.	Consulting Skills Training Program	Professional (Instructional) Development	20
5.	Educational Consulting Service	Instructional Diagnosis Micro-Teaching	24
6.	Advanced Consulting Skills	Organizational Development Personal Development	30
7.	Established Research and Development Center on Campus (Focus on the Teaching-Learning Process in Higher Education; Encompasses and Sustains All Above Activities, Plus Research)	Professional Development Personal Development Organizational Development	36

DESIGNS FOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAM NUMBER THREE:
Evaluation Emphasis

STEP	NATURE OF ACTIVITY	COMPONENTS INVOLVED	PROBABLE MONTH OF EVENT
1.	New Policy on Instructional Performance	Instructional Development (Governance)	1-6
	a) Increased Emphasis on Instruction in Decisions Concerning Salary, Promotion, Tenure		
	b) Definition of Criteria for Assessing Faculty Performance in Instructional Areas		
2.	Instructional Evaluation Instruments (Self, Student)	Instructional Evaluation	2-12
	a) Pilot Tested		
	b) Ownership by Faculty		
	c) Linkage to Policy		
	d) Linkage to Development (Step 3)		
3.	Instructional Training, Consulting, and Design (ITCD) Center	Instructional Development	6-18
	a) Linkage with New Policy		
	b) Linkage with Evaluation		
	c) Demonstration Programs		
	d) Public Relations		
	e) Training of Staff		

STEP	NATURE OF ACTIVITY	COMPONENTS INVOLVED	PROBABLE MONTH OF EVENT
4.	Linkage of ITCD Center with Institutional Research: Development of Institutional Research and Development Center	Organizational Development Professional Development	18-30
	a) From Faculty to Administrative Development		
	b) From Instructional to Organizational Development		
5.	Community Building (Done under Auspices of ITCD)		
	a) Peer Evaluation and Diagnosis	Instructional Evaluation Instructional Diagnosis	30-36
	b) Team-Building	Team-Building	
	c) Grievance Procedures (Ombudsmanship)	Conflict-Management	

DESIGNS FOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAM NUMBER FOUR:
Comprehensive Emphasis

STEP	NATURE OF ACTIVITY	COMPONENTS INVOLVED	PROBABLE MONTH OF EVENT
1.	Institutional Planning and Development Group ("Future of the Institution")	Curriculum Development Organizational Development	1-3
	a) Discuss Instructional/ Institutional Issues		
	b) 8-15 Faculty and Administrators		
	c) Ad-hoc, Mission-Oriented Group		
	d) Low-Profile		
2.	Institutional Seminars on "Future of the Institution"	Curriculum Development Discussion of Teaching	3-6
	a) Run by Planning and Development Group		
	b) Use of Futuristics Tools: Simulations, Scenarios, Delphi, Cross-Impact Matrices		
3.	Retreat Preparation	Organizational Development	6-9
	a) Planning and Development Group Collects Institutional Data (in conjunction with Institutional Research Office)		
	b) High Level of Ownership by All Campus Groups on Design of Retreat		

STEP	NATURE OF ACTIVITY	COMPONENTS INVOLVED	PROBABLE MONTH OF EVENT
4.	Institutional Retreat (2-3 days: held mid-week: classes cancelled) a) Pre-Retreat Delphi Survey b) Assembled Institutional Data in Analyzed Form (*e.g.*, Cross-Impact Matrices, System Dynamics) c) Keynote Speaker (Futuristics) d) Systematic Problem-Analysis Model: Situational Analysis, Target-Clarification; Proposal Generation	Team-Building	9
5.	Center for Institutional Planning and Development a) Act on Recommendations from Retreat (Plan Additional Retreats, Surveys, As Needed) b) Provide Training and Consulting Services to Assist in Bringing about Needed Changes c) Linkage with Institutional Research and Development Offices	Professional Development Organizational Development Personal Development	9

Appendix A

A LIST OF INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT CENTERS AND PROGRAMS

Compiled by Jerry G. Gaff
Project on Teaching Improvement Centers and Programs
A research project supported by the Exxon Education Foundation
and
The Center for Professional Development
California State University and Colleges
425 Spruce Street
Berkeley, California 94708
February 23, 1975

This is a list of colleges and universities that have been identified as operating instructional improvement centers or programs. Even though the list is not exhaustive, it is extensive, and it has been assembled so that individuals who are interested in faculty or instructional development programs may learn about others who are engaged in similar activities.

The centers and programs were identified by a combination of procedures. Letters were sent to the nearly 100 state agencies responsible for coordinating the work of public four- and two-year colleges in the states; responses were obtained from about three-fourths of these agencies, many of them containing names of schools and individuals. Additional leads were obtained from conversations with staff members in selected instructional improvement centers, government agencies, private foundations, educational associations, and other knowledgeable individuals, from lists of participants in national conferences on teaching-learning issues, from references contained in books and journals, and from dissertations written in this area. Each person and/or organization which came to my attention was sent a letter requesting descriptive materials about the program.

The descriptive information which was obtained indicated that there is a wide variety of efforts underway to improve instruction, many of which are somewhat peripheral to the main concerns of this project. This list contains centers and programs with the following characteristics.

1. They have an in-service rather than a pre-service emphasis; graduate programs designed to prepare college teachers have been omitted.
2. They focus on higher education; teacher training programs for elementary and secondary schools have not been included.
3. They serve primarily faculty members; programs which serve students directly have been excluded.
4. They have a separate identity and organization; faculty development activities which are regularly conducted by administrators in the normal course of their work have been omitted.
5. They have institution-wide responsibilities; instructional improvement programs that are

conducted by departments or other small units have not been included.

6. They are different from conventional media centers; media centers are included only if they have some active involvement in instructional development to help faculty members improve their courses.
7. They are currently operational, or they will become so in a very short time; pending proposals have been omitted.
8. They focus on the improvement of instruction within an institution; although some programs that serve other constituencies have been included, most serve the faculty within their institutions.

Lists are one thing and descriptions, analyses, syntheses, and judgments are quite another. The final report of the project will contain a comprehensive discussion and assessment of instructional improvement centers and programs. The report, tentatively titled *Faculty Development and Instructional Improvement*, will be published by the Jossey-Bass Company. In the meantime, this list may facilitate communication among persons interested in the improvement of instruction.

ALABAMA

University of Alabama
Center for Research and
Services in Higher Education
Tom Diener
Director
University, Alabama 35486

School of Medicine
Office of Undergraduate Medical Education
Division of Research
Jack D. Hain
Director
1919 Seventh Avenue, S.
Birmingham, Alabama 35233

ARIZONA

University of Arizona
College of Medicine
Academic Affairs
Robert A. Barbee
Assistant Dean
Tucson, Arizona 85724

CALIFORNIA

Azusa Pacific College
Office of Instructional Development
James Holsclaw
Azusa, California 91702

California State College, Bakersfield
Center for Professional Development
Kim Flachman
Director
9001 Stockdale Highway
Bakersfield, California 93309

California State College, San Bernardino
Center for Professional Development
Walter Zoecklein
Director
5500 State College Parkway
San Bernardino, California 92407

California State University, Chico
Learning Activities Resource Center
Phyllis I. Bush
Associate Vice President for Academic Affairs
Chico, California 95926

California State University, Fresno
Faculty Development Program
Carl Kleeman
Director
Fresno, California 93740

California State University, Long Beach
Faculty Career Development Center
James C. Robinson
Director
Long Beach, California 90804

California State University, Northridge
Institute for the Advancement of
Teaching and Learning
Daniel Sedey
Director
18111 Nordhoff Street
Northridge, California 91324

California State University and Colleges System
Center for Professional Development
Clare Rose
Acting Director
3670 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, California 90036

Coast Community College District
Bernard J. Luskin
Vice Chancellor, Educational
Planning and Development
1370 Adams Avenue
Costa Mesa, California 92626

DeAnza Community College
Faculty Development Committee
David L. Kest
Chairman
21250 Stevens Creek Boulevard
Cupertino, California 95014

Golden West Community College
Learning Resources
Hayden Williams
Director
Huntington Beach, California 92647

Los Medanos College
Chester H. Case, Jr.
Professional Development Facilitator
Pleasant Hill, California 94523

Ohlone College
Staff and Instructional Development Program
Neil McCallum
Fremont, California 94537

San Diego State University
Instructional Development Program
Patrick Harrison
Director
San Diego, California 92115

San Francisco State University
Audio-Visual Center
Frank X. Moxley
Director
San Francisco, California 94132

San Jose State University
Instructional Resources Center
Ron J. McBeath
Director
San Jose, California 95192

Stanford University
Center for Research and Development
in Teaching
Robert N. Bush
Director
Stanford, California 94305

Center for Teaching and Learning
David Halliburton
Director
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University of California, Berkeley
Teaching Innovation and Evaluation Services
Robert C. Wilson
Director
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University of California, Davis
Teaching Resources Center
Kathleen M. Fisher
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School of Medicine
Office of Medical Education
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University of California, Irvine
California College of Medicine
Office of Educational Development
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University of California, Santa Barbara
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University of California, San Francisco
School of Medicine
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University of the Pacific
Faculty Development Program
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University of Redlands
Hubert Eaton Program for
Instructional Development
Howard Hurlbut
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Redlands, California 92373

University of Southern California
Learning Systems Center
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Los Angeles, California 90007

School of Medicine
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COLORADO

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University of Colorado
Mountain-Plains Community College
Leadership Program
Donald L. Newport
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CONNECTICUT

University of Connecticut Health Center
School of Medicine
Department of Health Education
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DELAWARE

University of Delaware
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100 E. Hall
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DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Association of American Medical Colleges
Division of Faculty Development
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One Dupont Circle, N.W.
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Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges
National Faculty Development Program for
Liberal Arts Colleges
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Center for Personalized Instruction
Ben A. Green, Jr.
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FLORIDA

Eckerd College
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5401 34th Street, South
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Florida State Department of Education
Program for Staff and Program Development
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Tallahassee, Florida 32304

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Miami-Dade Community College
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Carol Zion
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University of Florida
Office of Instructional Resources
Jeaninne Webb
Director

College of Dentistry
Office of Dental Education
Arthur D. King
Instructional Systems Coordinator

College of Medicine
J. Hillis Miller Health Center
Office of Medical Education
C. Benjamin Stevens
Gainesville, Florida 32601

GEORGIA

Berry College
Faculty Development Program
Mt. Berry, Georgia 30149

Spelman College
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A. B. Chandler Medical Center
College of Medicine
Section for Educational Resources
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MAINE

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Improving Teaching Effectiveness Project
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MARYLAND

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Prince George's Community College
Learning Resources Center
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University of Maryland
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MASSACHUSETTS

Church Society for College Work
New Faculty Program
Joe Williamson
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Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138

Hampshire College
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Daniel Kegan
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Harvard University
Bureau of Study Counsel
William G. Perry, Jr.
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Center for Teaching and Learning
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Resources and Improvement
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Director

Clinic to Improve University Teaching
Michael A. Melnick
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Amherst, Massachusetts 01102

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Wellesley, Massachusetts 02181

Tufts University
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Medical Education Research
Phyllis Schmitt
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MICHIGAN

Association of Independent Colleges and
Universities of Michigan
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Research and Development
Ronald W. Richards
Director

Educational Development Program
Robert H. Davis
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The Learning Services
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Oakland Community College
Personalized Educational Programs
Derek N. Nunney
Director and Vice President for Academic Affairs
Bloomfield Hills, Michigan 48013

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Center for Research on Learning and Teaching
James A. Kulik
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School of Dentistry
Educational Resources Department
David Stavis
Chairman

School of Medicine
Office of Educational Research and Resources
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Wayne State University
School of Medicine
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Joseph W. Hess, Jr.
Director
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Western Michigan University
Office of Instructional Development
Howard R. Poole
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Kalamazoo, Michigan 49001

MINNESOTA

Macalester College
Faculty Renewal Program
Charles R. Green and Walter D. Mink
Program Coordinators
St. Paul, Minnesota 55101

University of Minnesota
Center for Educational Development
James E. Wertz
Director

Consulting Group on Instructional Design
Russell W. Burns
Director

Medical School
Judith Garrard
Curriculum Evaluator
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455

MISSOURI

Central Missouri State University
Instructional Resources Center
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Warrensburg, Missouri 64093

Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education
Center for Professional Development
Frederick H. Gaige
Director
Kansas City, Missouri 64111

Meramac Community College
Walter E. Hunter
Assistant Dean for Instruction
Kirkwood, Missouri 63122

Rockhurst College
Faculty Development Program
Kansas City, Missouri 64110

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Appendix B

A LIST OF NEWSLETTERS PUBLISHED BY FACULTY DEVELOPMENT OR INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT CENTERS

Compiled by Jerry G. Gaff
425 Spruce Street
Berkeley, California 94708

Faculty development and instructional improvement programs are being established by increasing numbers of colleges and universities, and the state of the art is developing rapidly. Most reports of the wide range of activities being undertaken for the sake of the improvement of instruction and the results of those activities have not yet been published. Information about innovative practices in this area often exists in the form of fugitive documents such as proposals, reports, memoranda, and evaluations that have been prepared at individual institutions. Fortunately, many instructional improvement or faculty development centers publish newsletters and circulate them to their faculty colleagues; they contain much information about current events in this new area of endeavor. Although most are designed to serve internal purposes, they do provide a useful source of information to persons interested in this area and are usually available free or at a modest cost. The following list of such newsletters has been compiled for the purpose of facilitating communication among persons interested in this important new area.

MEMO TO THE FACULTY

Center for Research on Learning and Teaching
University of Michigan
109 East Madison Street
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104
Published 4 times yearly on a variable schedule
$3.00 minimum for 8 issues; single copies $.50,
reduced rates for 5 or more copies of single issue

TEACHING-LEARNING ISSUES

Learning Research Center
University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916
Published periodically

CIUE NOTES

Center for Improvement of Undergraduate Education
Cornell University
Ithaca, New York 14850
Published quarterly

TEACHING-LEARNING

Macalester College
Saint Paul, Minnesota 55105

IUCR NEWSLETTER

Institute for Undergraduate Curricular Reform
The University of North Carolina
General Administration
P.O. Box 2688
Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27514
Published periodically
Edited by Joy Turner

NEWSLETTER

Office of Instructional Development
Division of Instructional Communications
Western Michigan University
1450 Dunbar Hall
Kalamazoo, Michigan 49001
Published periodically
In lieu of monetary fee, requests information exchange; exchange newsletter with other teaching improvement centers and programs
Edited by Howard R. Poole

NEWSLETTER–OFFICE OF INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

University of Florida
450 Library East
Gainesville, Florida 32611
Published quarterly
Edited by Albert B. Smith

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Multi-institutional group; editor's address is listed
University of Florida
340 Norman Hall
Gainesville, Florida 32611
Published quarterly
$5.00
Edited by Albert B. Smith

CUE (CURRENTS IN UNIVERSITY EDUCATION)

Educational Assessment Center
University of Washington
447 Schmitz Hall, PB-30
Seattle, Washington 98195
Published periodically
Free
Edited by Karen I. Malkoff

INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT AND EVALUATION NEWSLETTER

Teaching Research Division
Oregon State System of Higher Education
Monmouth, Oregon 97361

NEWSLETTER

The Hubert Eaton Program for Instructional Development
University of Redlands
Redlands, California 92373

HARBINGER

Office of Educational Development
Coast Community College District
1370 Adams Avenue
Costa Mesa, California 92626
Published occasionally
Edited by Bernard Luskin

TEACHING

The Center for the Teaching Professions
Northwestern University
Evanston, Illinois 60201
Edited by Richard Niemi

COMMENT

Center for Educational Development
University of Minnesota
317 Walter Library
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455
Published periodically
Edited by Nancy Peterson

INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN/ DEVELOPMENT NEWSLETTER

Office of Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs
Dr. Leonard H. Robinson
North Carolina Central University
P.O. Box 19465
Durham, North Carolina 27707
Published occasionally
Edited by James E. Parker, Coordinator of Learning Resources

LEARNING NOTES

Center for Effective Learning
The Cleveland State University
UT 807
East 22nd and Euclid
Cleveland, Ohio 44115
Published monthly October through June
Edited by Clara Mackenzie

IRTHE NEWSLETTER

Institute for Research and Training in Higher Education
University of Cincinnati
446 French Hall
Cincinnati, Ohio 45221
Edited by Tony Grasha and George Thompson

BULLETIN

Office for Educational Development
University of Wisconsin, Green Bay
Green Bay, Wisconsin 54302
Edited by Eugene L. Hartley, Dean

INSIGHT TO TEACHING EXCELLENCE

Faculty Development Resource Center
The University of Texas at Arlington
Suite 340 Davis Hall
Arlington, Texas 76010
Edited by Mary Lynn Crow, Director

MLLRP INSTRUCTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OCCASIONAL PAPER

Merrill Library and Learning Resource Program
Utah State University
Library 202
Logan, Utah 84322
Published occasionally
Edited by Douglas Alder, Associate Director

LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT

Centre for Learning and Development
McGill University
P.O. Box 6070
Montreal, 101, Quebec, Canada
Edited by George L. Geis, Director

PSI NEWSLETTER

The Center for Personalized Instruction
Georgetown University
29 Loyola Hall
Washington, D.C. 20007
Published four times per year
$3.00 yearly

CENTER FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEWSLETTER

California State College, Bakersfield
9001 Stockdale Highway
Bakersfield, California 93309
Published occasionally
Edited by Kim Flachman, Director

RESPONSES

Your responses to *A Handbook for Faculty Development* will be of great value to us:

1. What parts of this handbook have been or are potentially of most value to you?

2. What parts do you think are of little value?

3. How might this handbook have been improved?

4. If further handbooks on faculty development are published, what would you like to see contained in them?

Thank You.

Fold, staple or tape, and mail.

From:

Name

Address

Zip

(CUT ALONG THIS LINE)

PLACE STAMP HERE

Responses

A HANDBOOK FOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges

Suite 750, One Dupont Circle

Washington, D.C. 20036

In the face of growing demands for accountability and a constantly shrinking student population, faculty development has become a major issue for institutions of higher education. This book responds to that issue by presenting both a discussion of faculty development as a way of improving instructional effectiveness and an analysis of faculty development as it relates to personal and institutional success. Specifically, this book first provides detailed discussions of a variety of approaches to instructional, personal, and organizational development and, second, it presents numerous forms, observation guides, handouts, and exercises that have proven effective in establishing faculty development programs. Included in A HANDBOOK FOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT are discussions of

Instructional Development

- Classroom Observation
- Evaluation of Instruction
- Microteaching
- Methodologies

Organizational Development

- Decision-Making
- Conflict-Management
- Team-Building

Personal Development

- Discussions on Teaching
- Helping Skills

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